The Nation.

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The Week.

Senator Lodge takes the rejection of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty very much to heart. We should think he would. He was its chief disfigurer, and he it was who explained on December 21 how certain it was that Great Britain would accept the Senate amendments. These were all "fair, reasonable, friendly, and in no sense offensive"; the English Ministers were men whose "ability, experience, and reputation are known to all the world," and there was no doubt whatever that they would "comprehend the purpose of the Senate amendments." But now that they have shown their comprehension, and seen through Lodge's little game, he utters a loud wail. He very much doubts if "the country will endure this indefinitely." Endure what? Why, Great Britain's persistent attempts to "thwart" us. From the arch-thwarter this comes with fine grace. If Lodge had not been frightened by the Irish outcry, and set to work slyly to mar the treaty, it would have been accepted by both countries as it stood, and solved every difficulty. Lodge condescendingly explained at the time how it was necessary for a Senator of real experience in foreign affairs to step in to make good the deficiencies of an amateur like Mr. Hay. The Secretary meant well, but didn't know how, and Lodge would show him. With his own work now thrown back in his teeth, we should think that he would at least have the decency to keep still.

While Washington dispatches take the usual roseate Administration view of affairs in Cuba, the news direct from Havana puts a more sober face upon the situation. It is evident that the mass of the Cubans feel that they have been not only tricked, but insulted. First asked politely by Gen. Wood what, in their opinion, the relations between the island and the United States ought to be, the delegates were bluntly told, before they had had time to formulate their own notions, what those relations must be. No longer ago than February 21, Gen. Wood, in his letter to the Convention outlining the ideas of the President, expressly guarded against the supposition that anything he said would be "binding" upon the Government of the United States. What he put forward was apparently only a tentative basis for negotiations. But within a week he had to deliver the ultimatum of Congress, which cannot be modified even in the crossing of a letter. Small wonder that the Cubans feel bitter. It is a bitter deception to which they are just fully awaking. They see our boasted humanity taking on the guise of greed, and our solemn promises about to be violated on the sole ground that our interest is against keeping our pledge, and no one is strong enough to compel us to. Placards posted in Havana, signed by George Washington, and warning Americans against the breaking of promises, would be a laughable sign of Cuban wit if they were not so melancholy a reminder of the national humiliation to which Washington's successor has brought us.

No American can read the full text of the report made to the Constitutional Convention by its Committee on "Relations" without admitting that it is as admirable in spirit as it is correct in tone. The deepest gratitude for what the United States has done in behalf of Cuba, is expressed in the same breath with a pure love of country and unconcealed pain at the discovery that the President of the United States is bent on exacting from Cuba conditions fatal to her independence. "A policy of perfidy" is what the Havana *Patria*, owned and edited by a member of the Convention, and the organ of the Cuban Republican party, calls Mr. McKinley's new Cuban policy—or, rather, his old policy at last uncovered. We are content, for to-day, to let the victims of his latest attempt at "forcible annexation" turn against him his own declaration that such an act would be "criminal aggression."

We learn by way of Havana that the United States is very anxious to "avoid having in any way to coerce the Cubans." It seems that the Administration considers that its "moral prestige" would be seriously impaired if only a few hundred negroes raised a revolt in Cuba and had to be shot. We cannot understand this squeamishness. It looks to us like "sickly sentimentalism." A moral prestige that is not injured by swearing brave oaths and bravely breaking them, surely would not suffer from killing black men in Cuba as well as in the Philippines. Would not an outbreak in consequence of our broken promise be the desired conclusive proof that the Cubans cannot govern themselves? And the President's shrinking from the thought of "coercing" the Cubans is something beautiful to see. He has procured and signed an act of Congress which proposes to strip them of their dearest rights. To this, he says, they must consent. But that is not coercion. It is only a sweetly reasonable request. So is a highwayman's request for your purse, while he holds a loaded pistol to your head.

We do not know why the President falls back on a helpless *non possumus*, in his reply to the delegation of Porto Ricans who are here to protest against what they allege to be an ill-considered and oppressive tax-law. Mr. McKinley seems to be convinced of the truth of their representations, but says he cannot interfere. Why not? Section 31 of the act for the government of Porto Rico provides that "all laws enacted by the legislative assembly shall be reported to the Congress of the United States, which hereby reserves the power and authority, if deemed advisable, to annul the same." It is clear, then, that the President might promise the Porto Ricans that he would recommend to Congress the annulment of their burdensome revenue law. "Something is certainly wrong in Porto Rico," says one of the delegates plaintively. He points to the extensive emigration of the natives in search of work, a phenomenon never known under Spanish rule. But this is all a mistake. Nothing can be wrong. The American flag is over the island, which is being benevolently assimilated. The inhabitants should be the happiest in the world. If they are not, it only shows that there is no such thing as gratitude on this wicked planet.

We are glad to see that our Government's professions in the Chinese difficulty are promptly followed up by deeds. The best way to avoid more slaughtering and looting—"punitive expeditions" the wise them call—is to cut down the foreign forces in Chinese territory. This is what is being done with the American detachment, and we shall soon have only a legation guard in Pekin. We can afford to bear in silence the flings of the Germans. They say that we have a bad "stomach-ache" in the Philippines, and that we talk moderation in China only because we have no soldiers to spare for the work of burning Chinese villages. Let the others have what glory there may be in such exploits; we may feel a truer pride in contemplating the excellent results of Gen. Chaffee's policy of justice and conciliation. For our part, we see more reason for national congratulation in the successful administration of the section of Pekin under the American flag, in such a way as to win the favor and confidence of the natives, than we should in the bloodiest battle ever fought to victory.

To be elected to Congress and to live

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on your salary while you are in Washington, is to be "a drone," according to our new political definition. It was given by Mr. Hull, Chairman of the House Committee on Military Affairs, when replying to the charge that he was interested in the Philippine Lumber Company. Of course he was. He gloried in it. He would prefer to leave Congress rather than be "a drone" who had nothing but his salary to live on. Even such a worker bee as Mr. Hull felt it necessary, however, to disclaim any connection of his company with the Government. It was a perfectly legitimate business, able to stand on its own feet without Government favor. Excellent; but on the last day of the session some strange letters referring to this Philippine Lumber Company were read in the Senate. They were written by Major Frank S. Bourns, who is general health officer of Manila. He is also the head of that purely native "Federal party" which has a heart beating so warmly—with such suspicious warmth—for the Americans. He is also agent of the Philippine Lumber Company. What other occupations he unites in his single person we do not know, but he evidently merits the high praise which Senator Beveridge bestowed upon him—"a good man." Bourns's letters, which Mr. Hull, of course, knew nothing about, were filled with talk about Government contracts for the Philippine Lumber Company. The "Government wants lumber badly," he writes; "we can depend upon a certain amount of aid from the Government"; "the engineer in charge . . . will use pine for the bridges, etc., in the Benguet region. If I am on the ground, therefore, *I should come in for a share of this.*" Bourns is evidently a "good man" and no "drone."

It seems only rational that a legislative body should have the power to limit debate, and that the majority should be able to bring a question to a vote. While few people mourn the defeat of the River and Harbor Bill through Senator Carter's resort to the practice by which one member may consume hours in what is not properly discussion at all, and even block the passage of a bill which the great majority of his fellows want to vote for, it appears little short of an outrage that such a result should be possible. At the same time it must be said that public sentiment is not now likely to support a *clôture* rule with any such heartiness as it did a few years ago. The House of Representatives has virtually ceased to be a deliberative body when propositions of such extraordinary importance as the Cuban and Philippine amendments to the Army Bill can be put through with only an hour's debate. There ought to be a chance for serious consideration and orderly discussion of public questions in one branch, and it would be a great misfortune if the Senate should ever imitate the practice which has grown up in the House of letting a small group of managers decide how long a debate shall be allowed on any issue which arises.

Mr. Cannon, whose past work as Chairman of the House Appropriations Committee has been really valuable to the public interests, does not seem to us to appear to advantage in the statement which he put out on Wednesday week. Mr. Cannon plainly took the tone of an apologist. He explained in detail that although the total appropriations of the Fifty-sixth Congress foot up the handsome amount of $1,440,062,545, still they fall short by $128,150,091 of the Congress which preceded it. This is perfectly true; but the real explanation of the difference is not even remotely suggested in Mr. Cannon's statement. To find that explanation, the puzzled citizen must turn back to Mr. Cannon's statement of March 11, 1899, when he was undertaking (very properly) to explain the heavy outlay of the Fifty-fifth Congress. Under the heading "War Appropriations, on account of or incident to the war with Spain," Mr. Cannon submitted a very carefully drawn-up table, which concluded with the following entry: "Grand total war appropriations made during the Fifty-fifth Congress, $482,562,083." We should say that a Congress which had managed to cut only $128,000,000 out of appropriations swelled to their total by so gigantic a special item of expenditure, was pretty gravely in need of an apologist.

Addicks has again succeeded in carrying out his threat that it should be Addicks or nobody when a Republican Legislature in Delaware was called upon to elect a United States Senator. The first time was in 1895, and the result was that one of the State's seats in the upper branch of Congress remained vacant for two years, and was then filled by the election of a Democrat for the remaining four years of the term. The next time was in 1899, and the result then was that the other seat was kept vacant for two years, when, except for Addicks, it would have been occupied by a Republican. The third time is the adjournment of the Legislature without choosing anybody for either the long or the short term, and the result will be that Delaware will have no representative in the Senate for the next two years. Seven Republican members of the Legislature withstood all temptations to go over to the rich and corrupt speculator who has so long tried to buy the seat, and they deserve national honor. Never before in our history has a State been in Delaware's predicament because its Legislature could not fill either of two vacant seats in the Federal Senate. The incident must strengthen the popular disposition to favor a change in the method of choosing Senators.

Montana's Senatorial deadlock was broken early on Friday morning. The session expired by Constitutional limitation at midnight, and when twelve o'clock came, no choice had been reached. But the old device of putting back the hands of the clock was employed, and then voting went on without reference to time until, after some hours, a bare majority was secured for one candidate. It will not surprise the country to learn that the new Senator is a "retired capitalist," for the office is not likely to go to a poor man in such a State as Montana, but it is encouraging to hear a good report of his character.

The report of the grand jury in the Anderson County (S. C.) cases of enforced labor fully sustains the charges made by the Anderson *Mail*, and pays that paper the compliment of saying that the agitation has already killed the system of illegal contracts in use in some places. On five plantations the jury found a most iniquitous state of affairs, the contract laborers being imprisoned when not actually at work, and often being cruelly whipped—one to the extent of a hundred lashes from a rawhide whip. Two cases of kidnapping were found where men were enslaved without any charges of misconduct having been made against them, and the plan of working negroes awaiting trial was found to have been a great success. That such a state of affairs could exist in one of the oldest communities in the United States seems hardly credible. A redeeming feature of the revelations is the spirit of the law officers thus far concerned. The grand jury has been as fearless as the presiding judge, Benet, who has again declared that the State courts will do their duty, and that Federal interference is unnecessary. "No politics, no party, no race issue," he says, are involved in this case. If the State can really rid itself of this infamy without outside pressure, it will have done much to restore its lost credit.

It being understood that the Virginia Constitutional Convention, which is to meet in Richmond in June, is to consider the question of having the school tax paid by whites applied to white schools only, President Dreher of Roanoke College has taken an early opportunity to come out against the plan. He finds it directly opposed to the fundamental American theory that the common schools are the foundation of the State, and sees no more reason why the negroes should be deprived of the assistance of the richer whites in obtaining their education than why for-

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eigners in Northern cities should be discriminated against because they pay but a small part of the school taxes. President Dreher quotes, with approval, from a recent paper by President Dabney of the University of Tennessee. Comparing Massachusetts, Tennessee, and the United States as a whole, President Dabney said: "Education is as 14 in Massachusetts to 8.8 in the United States, to 6 in Tennessee. Production is as 13 in Massachusetts to 8.5 in the United States, to 5.8 in Tennessee. Twelve million dollars invested in superior education in Massachusetts yields four hundred millions a year." Dr. Dabney rightly believes that Tennessee must educate its black children as well as its white, "not poorly, but thoroughly," if Tennessee is to rival other States, and the same is true of every other Southern State. Such an action as that proposed in Virginia would be an inconceivably short-sighted and inexcusable step backward.

The Maryland House has passed Senator Gorman's Negro-Disfranchisement Bill, and now everything depends on the Senate. The scheme has never had the partial justification that similar restrictive legislation has had in Southern States where the negro population is a large majority of the total. In Maryland the negroes are a small minority, and the attempt to disfranchise them is an outrageous bit of partisanship. The terms of the bill are most objectionable. Instead of establishing frankly an educational qualification for the suffrage, the supervisors of elections are to be given the power to arrange the names of candidates on the ballot in confusing fashion, while aid is to be refused to illiterate voters at the polls. It will be seen, not only that the bill admits of unfair discrimination, but that the application of the system would be peculiarly irritating, and probably conducive to disorder at the polls.

It is clear that Governor Odell has everything to gain by sticking to his convictions against the State Constabulary Bill. Such a piece of legislation would be unwise politically, as well as from every other point of view. Even if it would give the machine a few offices to distribute, it is so objectionable to the larger cities that a Governor who approved it would forfeit the confidence, not only of the great body of independent voters, but of many of his own party as well. In New York city, for which the bill is chiefly intended, the feeling of opposition is very bitter among all classes of citizens. Tammany is strong enough now, but were it to enter the next municipal campaign as the avowed champion of home rule in a fight against the Republican State machine, it would be irresistible. It is true that the present condition of the municipal police force is unspeakably bad; but the present condition, with the responsibility for it fixed upon Tammany, is our chief hope of overthrowing Tammany. A force under control of the State Republican machine would in all probability be little, if any, better than the present; and it would be such a source of irritation to the people of the city that it would vastly strengthen the hold of Tammany. Moreover, the Court of Appeals has, for the second time within a fortnight, rendered a decision which shows that it is disposed to sustain the home-rule principle to its full extent. Six years ago "organized labor" induced the Legislature to pass a law that all stone used in State and municipal contracts should be dressed within the State. During these six years New York city has had to pay great sums in order to have stone brought in the rough from other States and dressed under far more expensive conditions here. The highest tribunal has now declared this statute void, for the same reason as the Prevailing Rate of Wages Law, which the court also annulled recently—that it put an unconstitutional restriction upon the freedom of action which a municipality should enjoy; as well as for the further reason that it is an attempt to regulate commerce between the States, which, under the Federal Constitution, is the prerogative of Congress.

Negotiations for a Boer surrender, more or less extensive, are clearly progressing in South Africa. When Buller was talking surrender to Botha a year ago, the parley was broken off on account of the harsh terms insisted upon by Lord Roberts, of course under instructions from London. Sir William Harcourt, by the way, has just exposed a characteristic misrepresentation by Mr. Chamberlain on this very subject. The Colonial Secretary was dwelling, in his speech in the Commons, on the extremely generous terms offered Botha. All the members of his force were to be "permitted to retire to their farms." Did that include the officers? Mr. Chamberlain was asked on the spot. "Certainly," he replied, "the officers." Now, will it be believed that Lord Roberts's telegram to Buller, telling him what terms he might offer—a telegram which Mr. Chamberlain must have had before him—specifically excepted the Boer officers? They were to "remain with you on parole until you receive instructions for their disposal." Sir William Harcourt makes the obvious comment on what he describes as the "truly admirable accuracy and ingenuity" of Mr. Chamberlain's version of the official correspondence:

> "The exception of the officers reduced the whole thing to a farce. How was it to be expected that these officers, through whom alone the terms could reach the men, would press them on their acceptance? How was it likely that men like the Boers would consent on such terms to abandon their chiefs? Such was the manner in which the war was prolonged."

It is significant that a relief of the English military strain in South Africa is instantly followed by rumors of a stiffer attitude towards Russia on the part of the British Foreign Office. "Our teeth are all in South Africa," said Lord Salisbury a year ago, when told that it was time for England to show her teeth to the Russians. The situation is unquestionably one in which a good deal of friction might easily develop. Russia is trying to make a separate agreement with China as respects Mantchuria; yet she is profuse in her assurances that the arrangement is only temporary, and that Mantchuria is ultimately to be "restored" to the Chinese Empire. But England and the United States object, it is said. They know what this "restoration" means. Egypt was to be "restored" in the same way, and so was Cuba. Neither has been or will be. What Great Britain apparently desires is something more than a verbal promise from Russia that she will not annex Mantchuria. Secretary Hay's position is that, whatever may be done in the end, the first thing is to arrange comprehensive terms of peace between China and the Powers, and that, in the meantime, no country should fish for itself in the troubled waters. That, also, was the purport of the Anglo-German agreement; and there is little reason to doubt that on some such basis the matter will be amicably adjusted. But that, in one way or another, Mantchuria is ultimately to become Russian, we presume that the most ardent Russophobe would not longer question. Its absorption is clearly in the line of Russia's contiguous expansion.

Mr. Brodrick, the English Secretary of State for War, announced on Friday in the House of Commons the Government's plan for the increase of the army. In brief, the scheme calls for 115,000 more regulars, 50,000 more militia, 25,000 additional yeomanry, and a volunteer increase of some 40,000 men, and provides for the modernization of the various branches of the service in accordance with the lessons of South Africa. Particularly striking are the determination to reform the training of officers, and the adoption of the rotation idea in the commands of army corps. Along these lines there is the most to do. Mr. Brodrick's proposal is not revolutionary, in that it proposes no new branch of the army, and does not disturb the present establishment. It is a recognition of the fact that England's Imperialistic policy demands an Imperial army, and as such it gives the final coup to Lord Salisbury's childish rifle-club plan of a year and a half ago. But Mr. Brodrick's critics have already found the weak spots. Can the additional men be obtained without balloting for the militia or conscription? Upon the answer to this question depends the success of this attempt to increase England's military burdens.

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ARE WE TO HAVE AN EMPEROR?

A phrase torn from its context and sent reverberating round the whispering gallery of the press, is getting to be our ordinary way of misquoting a public speaker, even in the very act of repeating only words actually used by him. It is a subtle temptation besetting even the most conscientious reporter and the most careful newspaper. President Hadley is the latest victim of this journalistic habit. In his Lenten address in the Old South Church in Boston on Sunday night, he said something about our having an Emperor at Washington in twenty-five years unless we find some way of regulating Trusts. What else he said will not matter to the run of newspaper-readers. Any one can see how the thing will go flying over the country. "Hadley Predicts an Emperor!" "The Trusts Aiming at an Empire!" Every man can write his own headlines. And it will be impossible for the truth to catch up with the misrepresentation. The President of Yale will hereafter be quoted in a thousand newspapers and in endless speeches as warning his fellow-countrymen that they are headed straight towards an Empire. Nothing he can do now will prevent that.

There may be, however, yet seven thousand who have not bowed the knee to the Baal of sensationalism, and who will take the trouble to inquire exactly what it was President Hadley said and intended. Discrimination is the beginning of wisdom, and the first discrimination to be made in this case is that between the economist and the preacher. President Hadley was in the pulpit, not in his lecture-room, not writing in the *Yale Review* or the *Journal of Economics*, when he used the language of which we shall doubtless hear so many distortions. He spoke as a preacher of righteousness. It was a moral warning and a moral appeal to which he gave utterance. This was eminently proper in a Lenten discourse. Anything else would have been out of place. There exist undoubtedly moral and religious and social sentiments and motives to which a preacher may appeal in restraint of greed, in rebuke of senseless luxury, in condemnation of power unjustly acquired and inhumanly used. In all this President Hadley was only repeating, in another form, his plea of a year ago for social ostracism of the criminal rich. What he said was that, unless in our own personal standards of right and wrong, unless in our social customs, unless in our public opinion, we found a means of checking the power of organized and unscrupulous wealth, laws would not save us, universal suffrage would not help us, but we should march swiftly along the path of Imperialistic greed and cruelty till we had an empire in name as well as in substance.

Well said, say we—that is, for a pulpit utterance. It has the true prophet ring about it, and, addressed as it was (so the thoughtful reporter informs us) to "the richest church society in New England," should have left more than one hearer cut to the heart. But if we were to take the deliverance purely as an economic and political one, no little demur would be necessary. If President Hadley were to speak as an economist, he would doubtless agree that there are possible and desirable legal curbs to apply to the great combinations of capital. What, for example, could be more surely "indicated," as the physicians say, as a remedy (only partial, of course) for the huge Steel Trust than the prompt abolition of every cent of protective duty on steel products? Congressman Babcock has already proposed this; we presume that President Hadley would heartily agree to it. And we make no doubt that, if he had been speaking as an economist and publicist, not merely as a preacher, he would also have agreed that an adequate legal remedy for the political evil he complains of can be found. If not, our mouths are shut. "No remedy, no wrong," has been the historic Anglo-Saxon maxim. If a just and wise and enforceable statute cannot be drawn to repress the political evils of Trusts, then we had better keep still. Our forefathers knew how to strike at monopolies and regrating in their Common Law. We can, in like manner, clip the claws of Trusts—if we really want to.

There's the rub. Do we want to? Is the enthronement of unscrupulous wealth in the politics of our States and in Washington a thing which the American people really desire to abolish? Any one who doubted it would have many things to show for his opinion. Many of our ablest public men would admit, do so privately, that they like the present system of purchasing legislation. In this sense, many of our best would say, as Paley said of himself in his day: "I am an advocate for corruption." And the kind of Emperor we shall get from the continuance of our method of making politics an annex of business is not at all a bold usurper on horseback. No, he will be still more of the negative and unresisting type of our existing "Emperor of Expediency," as ex-Speaker Reed calls President McKinley. He will be, that is, still more of a meeting-point of vast financial interests, still more the line of least resistance along which they move steadily for the subjugation of the powers and forms of government to their own private ends. And if a violent reaction comes, it will not be towards personal and arbitrary power, but towards a man who can utter and execute the passions of the masses. If President Hadley is thinking of a régime which will break the grip of greed upon our Government, he must look for it in the advent of a man who will arise, as Burke said of Chatham, to use the mob as his raw material of power.

In mere appeal to the moderation and forbearance of the man who has made himself unlawfully rich, and who has it in his power to prey upon the community, we confess that we see little hope. When was it the characteristic of power to be moderate? When will greed admit itself satiated? When did a vulgarized society, drunk with wealth and mad with the competition in ostentation, ever long ostracise a man whose millions can minister to its sybaritic delights? Ask Dr. Huntington, whose Lenten sermon on Sunday in Grace Church was also a prophet note, piercing to the recesses of the vice that flaunts itself in Fifth Avenue, though really as foul as any that lurks festering in the city's lowest purlieus. We are, in truth, living in a time when we can hear little but the jingle of the guinea. It is the ugly side of our prosperity. We have gone over frankly from the standards of Gen. Gordon to the standards of Cecil Rhodes. Rhodes once asked Gordon if it was true that the Chinese Emperor had offered him, and he had refused, a roomful of silver after the suppression of the Tai Ping rebellion. It was so, Gordon said, and he asked Cecil Rhodes whether he would have accepted it. "I would have taken it," replied Rhodes, "and as many more roomfuls as they would give me. It is of no use having big ideas if you have not the cash to carry them out." That is the spot upon which our prophets must strike the hand to show where we "ail"; and until we discover that honor and truth and purity and self-sacrifice and public service are also "big ideas," we shall not make much headway against the prevailing apotheosis of brute wealth.

OUR STATISTICS OF DEPORTATION.

The United States has opened a new account, to be hereafter included in the official "Statistical Abstract." It will give the figures, not of importations or exportations, but of deportations. Gen. MacArthur has sent on the first instalment. Eighteen Filipino officers and twenty-six civilians—all of them American subjects—have been deported. This punishment is not known to the laws of the United States; but, of course, martial law can invent its own punishments as well as its own crimes. If Gen. MacArthur does not like the cut of a native's clothes, he can order the man imprisoned or deported or shot, and no court may say him nay. And, of course, with no one in Washington caring what becomes of the Filipinos, with no Senator threatening and frightening the President on that subject, the whole incident is shrugged aside by Imperialists. Their uniform answer to all who object to their proceedings, on the ground of either law or policy or phi-

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lanthropy, has come to be that of the ballad:

"It's very hard them kind of men
Won't let a body be."

The case is somewhat different, however, when it comes to deporting an American citizen. Mr. George T. Rice, who went to the Philippines as a member of the Minnesota volunteers, was on January 24 deported by Gen. MacArthur as a "dangerous incendiary and a menace to the military situation." Now, who was this dangerous incendiary, and what was his offence? The facts were all set forth in the Senate by Mr. Teller. Rice was the editor of the Manila *Daily Bulletin*. This was a commercial organ, established at the request of the merchants of Manila, and conducted in their interest and to their satisfaction. Purely as a trade journal, the *Bulletin* printed on January 14, as it stated, "at the request of several business men of Manila," the official pilot and moorage regulations of the port. Upon them it made running comments, showing that many of them were slackly enforced, disregarded, or openly violated under the eyes of the Captain of the Port. Evidently, this was a terrible "menace to the military situation." Without trial, and simply on the report of a military inspector, "Rice was summoned to the office of the Governor-General's military secretary, and called upon to promise that he would publish no more such articles. He declined to give such a pledge, but insisted that the article was truthful, and took a defiant attitude when threatened with deportation." But deported he promptly was, and is now in this country preparing to bring a suit against his own Government for damages.

He may get no damages, but, being an American citizen, he ought at least to get a hearing. If his criticism of a faulty public service was a crime, then, as Senator Teller has said, "there is not an editor in the United States who runs a newspaper of any character whatever who could not be sent to jail." If he had violated the press laws, the courts were open. If he had libelled the Captain of the Port, legal redress could speedily be had. But that is not the way of a military government. "Shut up or get out," was Gen. MacArthur's ultimatum.

The affair throws a curious light upon the President's instructions to the Taft Commission. Does the country still remember with what unctuous solemnity he told the people in his letter of acceptance last September of the "inviolable rules" which he had imposed upon "every division and branch of the Government of the Philippines"? Here are some of them: "No person shall be deprived of life, *liberty*, or *property* without due process of law. . . . The accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public *trial*, . . . to be confronted with the *witnesses* against him, . . . and to have the assistance of counsel. . . . No cruel or *unusual* punishment shall be inflicted. No law shall be passed abridging the freedom of speech or *of the press*." Every one of these "inviolable rules" was flagrantly violated in the case of this American citizen. What force or observance are they likely to have had in dealing with Filipinos? As a matter of fact, everybody knows that they have had none at all, and that the President was simply humbugging either himself or the people—or both. What we have in the Philippines is a government by military whim, and all pretence to the contrary is fraudulent. No man can name a law or Constitutional guarantee upon which Gen. MacArthur may not set his boot under the plea of military necessity.

And what a petty and childish business this deportation is! It was said that it would strike terror into the hearts of the Filipinos. As if they had not been used to it under former tyrants! Spain deported them wholesale in 1872, and at other times, but found it a vain as well as cruel and unusual punishment. Have we to copy Spanish blunders down to the very last one? For a complacent "world-power," in particular, deportation is a lamentable thing. Can we not even bear the gaze of our victims? Are we afraid of these puny patriots, willing to rot in jail rather than submit to us? Where is our boasted strength? Where our traditional good nature? A typical American Government would laugh at these offences which drive us in the Philippines into such a fury. Uncle Sam, before he became a world-power, would have chuckled at ease in presence of the newspaper criticism and native obstinacy which now make him so angry and anxious. What is the matter with the old gentleman? Is he, instead of a great and consciously strong world-power, only a nervous *nouveau riche*, not sure of himself in the elegant society of the nations?

RELIGION AND HONESTY.

According to the popular view, religion is something which transcends morals. No one can be truly religious who is not moral, but the man who is merely honest falls short of that height which is reached by the fortunate possessor of both cardinal and theological virtues. Now this is very well, or would be if the religious were not sometimes tempted to cut short corners for the sake of helping on the cause of religion. We are all familiar with mediæval devices for contributing to the good work by forgery of decretals on behalf of the Papacy and of title-deeds on behalf of the Abbey. These were cases of uncommon dishonesty. The modern world, watching the same tendency, is more familiar with breaches of what we call "common honesty."

At a period when biological research is active, and the comparative method in literary study yields manifest results, acute friction is constantly arising between a minority of theologians who keep well informed, and a majority who would abide strictly within the boundaries which our fathers marked out. We do not raise the general question of heresy in the Christian Church—its causes and its probable results. But we should like to point out that even where the suspect is not actually found guilty, he is sometimes treated with less than fairness because he has been scholarly enough to ascertain the best opinion and candid enough to accept it.

Montreal is now agitated by an attack on academic freedom which presents more unpleasant features than attended the dismissal of Professor Ross from Stanford University. Professor Steen of the Diocesan College has been forced out of his position for holding such views regarding the authorship and inspiration of the Bible as are avowed in England by Canon Driver and many others with complete impunity. He was not dismissed, for, on being told that his withdrawal was desired by the Dean, he resigned instead of fighting the matter out. There can be no question of fitness, since Professor Steen's learning far exceeds the actual requirements of his position. Besides, his students have all signed a letter which expresses their feeling towards him in terms of enthusiastic admiration. Nor has the influence of Professor Steen been restricted to his classroom. He has often been heard from the pulpit of the Cathedral, and by many he is considered to be much the best preacher in the diocese.

The incident, however, owes any general significance which it may possess to the circumstances of the resignation. When suspicion of error had once been aroused, Professor Steen should have been summoned before a lay or ecclesiastical board, and asked for a declaration of his views. But a different procedure was followed. The Principal of the college came to him and said that the Dean wished to see his note-books. Any self-respecting man, whether a teacher or not, can imagine what answer this request, or demand, drew forth. After Professor Steen had refused to let the Dean see his note-books, the lecture notes of a student were procured and examined before any verbal explanation at first hand was asked for. The study of this evidence seems to have taken several weeks, at the end of which the Dean expressed his displeasure and the resignation was handed in. Then Professor Steen appeared before a committee, stated his attitude on the points at issue, and was exoner-

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ated, but his resignation was accepted. We now come to the disingenuous part of the story. When the fact of the resignation became known, a newspaper reporter called on the Principal of the college and asked for further information. He was told that Professor Steen had resigned on the ground of ill-health, and that his resignation had been accepted. The exact terms of a newspaper "interview" are always open to question; yet, as the reporter's statement was not denied, the college authorities were evidently willing to have the public believe that the resignation of so good a scholar, teacher, and preacher was due solely to ill-health.

Since Professor Steen's resignation, questions have been asked in Synod concerning it, and the answer given is that the Diocesan College is an institution which stands outside synodal jurisdiction. A further appeal for information which was made to the Principal of the college has been acknowledged with a statement that the Board feels under no obligation to explain its actions to the public. Here the matter rests. A man of irreproachable morals and demeanor, who by virtue of talents and attainments stands head and shoulders above the clergy of the diocese, is given to understand that his services are no longer wanted. He resigns, he is acquitted of misbelief, his resignation is accepted, and then the college prompts, or at least countenances, the report that such an abrupt withdrawal is due to ill-health. While this lack of honesty in facing facts is shown by religious bodies, the Church may fulminate for ever against Sunday bicyclists without producing much effect.

Whether we trace it to ignorance or fear of skepticism, the attitude of many Protestant churches in this country towards knowledge and the results of knowledge is a sad subject. The well-educated clergy of the large cities may form a class apart, but it is separated by a wide gulf from the rank and file who fill the country pulpits and those of the small towns. We know it is hard to part with the beliefs of one's childhood, but still we can find no excuse for the parsons who tell their congregations that biologists are at sixes and sevens among themselves about the truth of evolution. The "forgotten millions" receive such doctrine from their spiritual guides in every section of this continent where there are churches, and the obvious result is to shake popular confidence in the preachers who say such things. But this kind of misrepresentation can often be set down to ignorance. Far worse is the lack of fair dealing which we have criticised in the case of Professor Steen. The students of the Diocesan College may henceforth be told that the world was created in the year 4004 B. C., and that St. Paul wrote the Epistle to the Hebrews. We doubt whether these assertions will be recommended by the knowledge that Professor Steen did not resign on the ground of ill-health as alleged, but that he resigned because his withdrawal was desired.

Obscurantism, though always bad, is sometimes amusing, as it was in the days of Reuchlin and Ortvinus Gratius. Leslie Stephen relates that one day in the Alps he stumbled upon some peasants who were protecting their cattle from the pest by a rite of exorcism. Not far away, almost within earshot, locomotives were running up and down the Rhone valley from Brieg to Martigny. Yet these Valaisians, who lived on the skirts of civilization, were repeating a practice of the Middle Ages. It is still more singular that many persons who dwell in large towns and occupy high official positions should remain so "unravaged by the fierce intellectual life of our century."

THE NOVEL AND THE THEATRE.

At the present moment half a dozen of the principal theatres of this city are offering what are called dramatic versions of popular novels, and the managerial craze for this form of entertainment seems to be steadily on the increase. The phenomenon is not curious, because the explanation of it is perfectly simple, but it is disquieting on account of its rapid development and the evil influences which it exercises, indirectly, upon a stage that is already sufficiently degraded.

The book-plays, as it is now the fashion to call them, possibly because they have so little in common with the volumes from which they are supposed to be derived, are attributable, in the first instance, to the literary log-rolling effected under the guise of correspondence or reviews in the cheaper popular magazines and the least responsible specimens of the daily press. It is by these agencies that novels of second or third-rate importance are boomed into brief but wide popularity, and are enabled to attain the amazing figures which are so impressive in an advertisement. Some of the books, of course, are much better than others; here and there one of first-rate quality occurs, worthy of the encomiums bestowed upon it, but that is beside the present subject. The point is, that from month to month many volumes of indifferent fiction are proclaimed masterpieces, with reiterated and resounding flourishes of literary trumpets, until the great public which reads the newspapers, and but little else, is familiar at least with their titles, and becomes vaguely desirous of a more intimate acquaintance. This is the opportunity of the speculative manager, who knows as well as any man alive the value of notoriety. About the actual merit of the particular book he is not concerned at all. But if the title of it, backed by rhapsodical recommendations, is to be seen in all the street cars, or in large type in the newspapers, he realizes its value for theatrical purposes. A play bearing that name starts with a sort of ready-made reputation, profits by all the advertising, legitimate or otherwise, of the original work, and is practically certain of that audience—a very large one—which is attracted chiefly by curiosity.

From the point of view of the box-office this is nothing but a smart stroke of business, a trick of the mere trade to which play-producing has been reduced. And the trick, having proved exceedingly lucrative in several cases, has been adopted by most of our theatrical directors, who are as imitative as they are obtuse. In reality the policy is likely to prove in the long run just as fallacious as a money-making scheme as it is injurious to the best interests of theatrical art. It is assailable also on the score of false pretence, for the book-play in nine cases out of ten is something essentially different from what it pretends to be. This, however, is a matter of comparatively small importance, as the original source of a play is of no consequence to the spectator so long as the play itself is a good one. But the fact is that such a thing as a satisfactory dramatic version of a novel is so rare as to be practically unknown. Of all the experiments of the kind that have been made by the most experienced of hack playwrights—the really able dramatist rarely wastes time in such follies—upon the books of such popular romancers as Scott, Dumas, Dickens, and a score of others, there is scarcely one that can be pronounced adequate, either as a sample of the original or as a piece of dramatic construction. This does not mean that none of them have been successful in a commercial sense, that they have not contained powerful scenes, or afforded opportunities for fine individual acting. Instances to the contrary abound in the records of the stage, but as plays their value has always been inconsiderable. Nor could it be otherwise. Between fiction and drama is all the difference that exists between description and execution; and the very arts that constitute the charm and potency of the one are necessarily detrimental and often fatal to the other.

These are trite reflections, but it is obvious that if they apply to the real masterpieces of invention, imagination, and original characterization, they are still more applicable to the great bulk of such modern fiction as is selected for the operations of the professional adapter, whose main object is to include in the prescribed number of acts as many "situations" as possible, without much reference to the minor incidents and conditions for which he has no

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space, but which are often essential to comprehension or plausibility. He is, moreover, hampered, as a rule, by the necessity of keeping some male or female star prominently before the footlights, which involves the suppression of subordinate but important personages, and the neglect of all proportion. The method, judging from results, which he generally adopts, is first to pick out the scenes for his climaxes, of which he requires four or five—and then to connect them with such rough links as he is able to hammer out in the poorly furnished workshop of his imagination. His job, when completed, is subject, of course, to arbitrary modification on the demand of the star—if he is big enough—or of the stage manager. All literary decorations are stripped off, as being dilatory and superfluous, and a series of violent episodes, just barely possible, perhaps, individually, but wholly preposterous in conjunction, are served up in a nudity absolutely offensive to the commonest intelligence. Thus it is that a novel which by a strain of courtesy might be dubbed romantic, is converted into the rawest and most puerile of melodramas.

In the end the evil will bring about its own remedy, because the current romantic novel, apart from its merely literary accessories, which vanish in the play, is modelled upon old conventions, in its incidents and heroics, and the recurrence of stale sensations is certain to cause satiety. But the end is not yet. The literary puffing machine is still busy upon the notices of the book-plays to be produced next season, and the prospects of the original native dramatists, outside of the few who have made their mark already, are not encouraging. They now have to encounter the competition of the novelists—who naturally are wide awake to their chances of theatrical royalties—as well as the indifference of the managers. It begins to look as if they would be obliged in self-defence to expand their plays into novels in order to get the publicity which seems to be the necessary preliminary to theatrical production. This would be a troublesome but entirely rational proceeding. A bad play may be converted easily into a good novel, whereas a poor novel is almost certain to eventuate in an inferior drama.

But it is not only the original dramatists who suffer from a system which prefers second-hand plots to new, and makes the stage a dumping-ground for all sorts of sensational rubbish, but the whole theatrical profession and the public. Inferior plays beget inferior acting, as is clearly demonstrated today in many of our leading theatres, where the general performance is slovenly and incapable in a marked degree. The fact is, that in the average book-play everything is sacrificed to situations and tableaux; acting, except in the case of one or two leading performers, being regarded as an affair of secondary consideration. Most of the minor characters are designedly colorless puppets, into which even good actors could not infuse vitality. Startling scenic effects, extravagant costumes, and sensational episodes will attract the crowd for a season, and then there will be a reaction of some sort. Meanwhile the theatre is sinking lower and lower in the estimation of the reflecting classes, who realize its possibilities under intelligent direction, but are inclined to despair of a future so menaced by the spirit of commercialism.

THE RUSSO-TURKISH BORDER.

TREBIZOND, October 31, 1900.

Erzerum is the present great distributing depot of Eastern Turkey. But it has no railroad, and is not on a navigable river. It is merely a caravan centre to which long trains of camels and oxen wend their way from the Black Sea coast, and from which, after unloading and repacking, they set out upon distant journeys into Persia and the Tigris Valley. The city itself is in a fertile valley on the head waters of the Euphrates River, and has about 40,000 inhabitants; but the valley is 6,000 feet above the sea, and surrounded by barren mountains. The climate is very hot in summer and very cold in winter. If the channels of trade ever desert it, the city will have no reason for existence.

The port of Erzerum is Trebizond, on the Black Sea, 120 miles to the northwest; but the distance cannot be reckoned in miles alone—the difficulties of the road must be taken into account. Even now, with a macadamized military road which is a marvel of engineering skill, the ups and downs are so serious that eight days of hard driving are necessary to cover the distance. It is impossible for the imagination to paint the difficulties of the trip twenty years ago, before the road was built. In going up this road the other day to the Ziganeh pass, retracing the route of Xenophon's famous Ten Thousand, I saw one of the most impressive illustrations of the conservatism of Eastern habits. It was a long train of donkeys and cattle, carrying cans of Baku refined petroleum from Trebizond to Erzerum. Now Baku is far to the east of Erzerum, and there is a railroad from Tiflis to Kars, only four days distant by caravan, but the oil is carried past Tiflis to Batum, and from there shipped to Trebizond, and then transported to Erzerum by a route which requires three times as many days, and involves three times as much up-hill work as it would from Kars.

Trebizond is an old and interesting city of 30,000 inhabitants, but, with the building of railroads, it will lose its importance, especially if it is ever absorbed by Russia. It is not the natural terminus for a railroad to the interior, on account of the snow-capped and picturesque mountain border which rises all along the coast abruptly from the sea. To reach Erzerum, two passes, each more than 6,000 feet above the sea, have to be surmounted, and the ascent in each case is so rapid that it was all the engineers could do to secure grades that horses and carriages could climb. Easier grades could be found from Tripoli, about 100 miles farther west. From there a stream could be followed up behind the first range of mountains. But at Tripoli there is no harbor, and, for that matter, there is but a very poor one at Trebizond. The south shore of the Black Sea is peculiarly destitute of good harbors. At Trebizond there is a projecting point of land which gives some protection from westerly storms, but none from the north and east. In the time of the Roman Emperor Justinian, an artificial harbor was constructed, whose walls can still be traced, but it is now nearly all filled with sand. One reason why the Turks do not build a new harbor is that they expect the Russians will take the province before long, so all such improvements would inure to the benefit of their inveterate enemy.

To a citizen of the New World, there is a strange fascination about this port of the Black Sea, on account of its historical associations. Just east of Trebizond was the ancient Colchis, where was laid the Grecian legend of the Golden Fleece. Long before the Christian era, Greeks colonized these shores, but never penetrated far inland. Their descendants are still here, and preserve both the language and the physical peculiarities of their celebrated ancestors. The Greeks, Armenians, and Turks, though occupying the same territory, are as separate from each other as oil and water. They rarely intermarry. They each have their own language, their own schools, and their own religious institutions. Of the three races, the Armenians have by far the largest intellectual capacity. They are the principal merchants and business men of the region. Their opportunities for development, however, are greatly circumscribed in Turkey, whereas in Russia there are more than 1,000,000 in the vicinity of the Caucasus. The Minister of Education for the whole Russian Empire is an Armenian. The richest oil operator at Baku, almost equal to Rockefeller in America, is an Armenian. But in the present strained relations between Turkey and Russia the Armenians are between the devil and the deep sea. Russia will not allow any more to come into her territory from Turkey, and Turkey will not allow those already there to come back, even to join their own families. The shadow of the horrible massacres of the Armenians by the Turks still hangs heavy over this whole region. The slaughter began in Trebizond five years ago, when 400 inoffensive citizens were shot down in cold blood and in open daylight. Massacre after massacre followed throughout the empire, until fully 150,000 were slain. There were, it is true, some extenuating circumstances in the fact that a secret society of visionary Armenians was plotting the overthrow of the Sultan's power. Their revolutionary efforts aroused both the fears and the religious passions of the Turks. In the result, it was the innocent who, for the most part, suffered the penalty. In Trebizond, two young Armenians attempted to assassinate a prominent Turkish official, and then took refuge among their own people. The Turks held all the Armenians responsible, and hence the massacre. Probably the assassins were not sheltered by their countrymen, but the Turks believed they were, and the result was the same as if it had been true.

The mass of the Armenians and Turks

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have always been on pleasant business relations with each other. It has been a common practice for individuals of the two nations to become partners in business, so that when the Armenian partner had to flee at the time of the massacre, his Turkish partner was left to look after the business, and, it is said, he usually did so faithfully. In company with the English Consul, I called upon the Governor, Kadri Bey, to get permission to travel into the interior. He is regarded as one of the ablest and best of all the Turkish Governors, yet, at the time of the massacres, he evidently looked on with little concern, and telegraphed to the Sultan, when the day's work was done, that there had been an insurrection, in which twelve Turks and seventy Armenians had been killed. But there was no insurrection, and no Turks were killed. The Armenians had no weapons. The Sultan, however, made a show of consistency by restoring to a widow whose husband was cruelly massacred, some of the plunder which the soldiers took from her home. The Governor received us very graciously, and not only gave us the requisite permission, but furnished us with a mounted gendarme to accompany us, thus making it a sort of official excursion. Our companion fully realized his importance, and did not fail to draw attention to his "distinguished" party. This secured us every favor which the land afforded. The Mayors of the villages came out to meet us on horseback, and expressed themselves as highly honored that we should visit them. The Governor had, however, made one stipulation, namely, that we should make a report to him suggesting, if possible, some way in which the poor inhabitants along the way could increase the productiveness of the soil, and so improve their conditions. This, certainly, was creditable to his character. There is no doubt that he has a genuine interest in the prosperity of his people.

On passing over the thirty-five miles which took us to the summit of the mountains bordering the sea, we did not wonder at the Governor's request. There is no level land. The mountainside is furrowed with gorges thousands of feet in depth, with slopes so steep that they were well-nigh inaccessible. Yet hamlets dotted the surface in the most impossible situations, and cultivated fields met our eyes on slopes so steep that one could hardly climb them on his hands and knees, and this without any terracing. We advised the Governor to encourage the planting of evergreen trees over the uncultivated areas, to set out hazelnut and blackberry bushes on the steeper cultivated slopes (hazelnuts are already a staple article of export, aggregating more than any other one thing), and to terrace the mountainside, so as to prevent all the fine soil from being washed away.

But, to return to the Armenians, it is important to remember that they are no longer a nation. They have no local habitation. They are scattered far and wide in eastern Turkey, and are a large element in the Russian province of the Caucasus. An independent Armenia is a dream that ought not to be thought of in one's waking hours. Under a Christian government like Russia, however, the people would have the hope of development along the lines of their past noble history. Russia is the natural protector of the large Christian population of eastern Asia Minor. When the jealousies of the other European Powers permit her to exert this protection, there will be no more Armenian massacres.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

LONDON'S WINTER EXHIBITIONS.

LONDON, January 8, 1901.

For many years the Royal Academy has given an interesting Winter Exhibition by borrowing old masters from the numerous private collections in England. The Academy's "Winter Garment of Repentance" this exhibition has been called, so great a contrast has it always presented to the modern indiscretions of the summer. But there are signs that the supply of old masters has been exhausted. "One-man" shows of Leighton and Millais, Rembrandt and Van Dyck, helped for a few years to conceal the unpleasant truth; but now that there is no special reason for any "one man" to step into the breach, the Academy cannot but reveal the poverty of its resources. This winter it is reduced to British art of the last half-century.

Now, it may be said that, under these conditions, a most important and suggestive collection could have been got together. True, Bonington and Constable, who were the pioneers of modern landscape, Turner, and the last of the great British portrait painters who still upheld the tradition of Van Dyck, belong essentially to the first fifty years. But in 1850 Pre-Raphaelitism, the last reëcho of the Romantic revolt that had long agitated the schools and studios of the Continent, was in full swing, and the time has come when it would be possible, were the opportunity offered, to measure not only the accomplishment of the Pre-Raphaelites themselves, but the manners and extent of their influence upon the art of England. If the result were the proof that their influence counts for nothing, so much the better; it would clear the air of cant. But it might be embarrassing to the Academy to bring forward the members of the brotherhood it neglected, or to include other artists who have set the standard for the present generation, but whom it has ever carefully ignored. Therefore, it has drawn a line, as foolish as it is arbitrary, and restricted the collection to the "Works of British Artists Deceased since 1850." A moment's reflection will show to what absurdities this can lead. Turner happened to die in 1851, and so he has a place upon the walls in the company of Holl and Pettie, Calderon and Hodgson—Academicians who died but yesterday. David Cox and William Hunt are found lingering in a period which can only by courtesy claim them. Poole and E. W. Cooke, both Royal Academicians—as were most mediocrities of the century—must be dragged once more before a patient public; Landseer, the sentimentalist of a past generation, resurrected; and honor paid to long-buried Presidents like Eastlake and Grant, whose careers have left no mark even upon the body over which they presided. The great contemporaries of Turner cannot be admitted because they died too soon; more famous Academicians than Poole and Cooke are not qualified because, fortunately, they live too long. The result is a tedious, chaotic hodge-podge of second-rate pictures, with here and there an occasional exception; not much better than an average Academy, and without any historical value to make up for its artistic shortcomings.

Nor has the Academy displayed much intelligence within the limits it has set itself. It is not to be complimented on its method of selection. There are cases where it seems almost as if an artist's least creditable achievements had been deliberately chosen. The treatment of the Pre-Raphaelites is one of the most glaring instances. Mr. Holman Hunt, of course, is excluded, as he happily is still living, so that the group must remain incomplete under such illogical classification. But it seems almost as if care had been taken to scatter the work of the others, so that there might be nothing to suggest the movement, rebellion, a new departure, or whatever it may be called, of which the Academy, at the time, was so disdainful. And the work itself is anything but representative. Of Ford Madox Brown, whose name will ever be memorable in the art annals of the century, there are but two, very unsatisfactory examples—"The Coat of Many Colors," painted after his drawing in pen-and-ink for Dalziel's Bible, a work so much more appreciated now than when it was published, and a smaller version of his "Chaucer at the Court of King Edward III." To these two paintings is added a water-color, "Romeo and Juliet." During his life Ford Madox Brown's relations with the Academy were never the most amiable—a fact which the Academy, burdened with prejudice, is not likely to forget. Rossetti fares worse. Only a single picture has been hung, and it is one which the Academy can best afford to hang, "A Vision of Fiammetta," a late work, in which his mannerisms are most pronounced. Type, color, and composition are all exaggerated; it is Rossetti in his least inspired mood. The two water-colors, "Paola and Francesca" and "Beatrice at a Marriage Feast Denies Dante her Salutation," are far more characteristic; but it would have been a generous way of confessing an old mistake had the Academy now spared to so distinguished an artist, never officially recognized during his lifetime, the same space accorded to insignificant Academicans. Burne-Jones fills a very modest corner with his "Flamma Vestalis," while, that there may be no doubt of the Academy's feelings in the matter, no less than nine pictures by Millais—none, however, dating back to his first Pre-Raphaelite period—have been included, though it is but a short time since the entire gallery was devoted to him.

On the other hand, if the Pre-Raphaelites are slighted, effort has been made to obtain an adequate representation of the few landscape painters who, in mid-century, never deserted the realism of Constable for a romanticism that left the Barbizon school far behind—that is, in romantic motive, not in merit. But as two among them were Associates of the Academy, the reason for this amiability is not far to seek. George Mason is much the oldest, having been born in 1818. Like Millet, he felt that no landscape was complete without figures—without human interest—but how differently he saw these figures! He was saturated with sentiment, and to turn from Millet's sowers and gleaners to his laborers, is to exchange tragedy for romantic comedy. His "Harvest Moon," one of his most famous canvases, is here, and I am struck again, as I have always been in looking at the print after it, by the theatrical sentiment in his procession of harvesters, who, in type, pose, and dress, belong not to the fields, but to the stage.

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The scent of the footlights, not of hay, meets you as they pass. But Mason had an agreeable sense of composition and a true decorative instinct; he was always quiet and refined in his methods, and his work, if never great, almost always has charm. Fred Walker inherited his affectations, and fell into lower sentimental depths. There is one picture shown, "The Bathers," in which he seems to forget whatever story he may have started out to tell, in sheer delight in the beauty of line made by the graceful, lithe young figures, with bits of drapery flying against the straight stretch of river and fresh green shores beyond. But in such pictures as "The Old Gate" and "The Wayfarers," the landscape, for all its excellence, is subordinated to the anecdote, in both pathetic to the verge of bathos. Where Corot or Rousseau lets you divine the sentiment of their meadows and woodlands for yourself, Mason and Walker fairly force it upon you until you shrink from its obviousness. Walker was unusually popular among his fellow-artists, and this popularity, together with the fact of his early death—he was but thirty-five—has transformed him into a hero, or a genius, in the eyes of Englishmen. But, at the Academy, you feel that, though as an illustrator he still had a career before him, as a painter he died in time to save his reputation. Pinwell, who resembles him in many ways, also died young—at thirty-three. And so also did Cecil Lawson, who was of a later generation, and really held out promise of being the most original and strongest of the group. He could see in Nature a beauty that never depended upon anecdote for its expression. It is said that one of the landscapes now exhibited was refused by the Academy when he himself submitted it, and, indeed, during his short thirty-one years, he never reached the dignity of Associate. Nor did John Linnell, though he lived to be fourscore and ten. Whatever the Academy's grudge, it has evidently survived, for Linnell is now shown to anything but advantage.

Outside of these two groups there is little to be said of the exhibition, unless it would be to describe individual pictures—an odd Leighton or John Gilbert, a portrait by Boxall, who at least lived and worked before the flood of vulgarity set in, a Venice by Holland, an architectural study by David Roberts. Most of the pictures are hardly worth such desultory criticism, but there is one man who towers above the others, a giant among the pigmies—Alfred Stevens, who is just beginning to receive the recognition that is his due. The doors of the Academy were shut to him during his life. His work has been dishonored almost persistently. Wellington's tomb at St. Paul's has never been finished, the little lions have been removed from the railings in front of the British Museum, his name is probably not known to more than one out of the hundreds who would respond with enthusiasm to the mere mention of Leighton or Millais. And yet he is to be counted among England's greatest sculptors, and a small portrait of a man, now at the Academy, proves that, though his pictures may be few, he was also a painter of unusual distinction. With its vigorous modelling, its wonderful rendering of the bony structure of a strongly marked face, its subtle expression of character, its color, its dignity, it is almost the one canvas in the collection that would stand the test of being hung with the usual winter array of old masters. It is at once the surprise and triumph of the Exhibition.

The water colors are as bewildering a medley as the paintings. Turner, Prout, David Cox are found side by side with the Pre-Raphaelites; Fred Walker and Pinwell, both better in this medium than in oils, are the near neighbors of Sir John Gilbert and Alfred Hunt, who were at work but yesterday. It is, however, in the black-and-white room that the Academy has gone most hopelessly astray. If there is an art which is really characteristic of the second half of the century, it is the art of illustration, and most of the men who did the great work of the sixties are long since dead. But you may look in vain for the drawings of Boyd Houghton, perhaps the most distinguished of all and absolutely unrepresented in the Exhibition; Rossetti, Pinwell, Mahoney. The single illustration of the period is Leighton's impressive "Moses," drawn for Dalziel's Bible. There is a Fred Walker, "The Vagrants," in pen and ink, but it is a study for the picture at the National Gallery, and not an illustration; while Millais, who would live were it solely for his Parables series and his work in Moxon's Tennyson, is seen only in a very commonplace drawing, "The Last Trek," published as frontispiece in a book by one of his sons, shortly before his death. Black and white, to the Academy, means chiefly *Punch*, another of England's worn-out and, therefore, highly respected institutions. With the exception of some designs by Burne-Jones, the collection consists almost altogether of a few examples of Leech, England's greatest bore, and Du Maurier, and a large number of studies and drawings by Charles Keene, whom it is as delightful as it is astonishing to find in a gallery where he himself was careful never to exhibit. If the object of the Academy was not to compete with the Government's Exhibition of Illustration, to open in a few days at South Kensington, it has been most successful.

At the New Gallery, where the other important exhibition of the winter is always held, the conditions this year are not much more encouraging than at the Academy. One can look back with pleasure to the splendor of Tudor and Stuart, Venetian and Flemish collections; but what is there now to take their place? "The Works of Sir W. B. Richmond, K.C.B., R.A., D.C.L." He is a painter whose special distinction it is to have been during several months probably the most severely and unanimously criticised man in England. As all the world surely must know by now, he is responsible for the recent decorations that have gone so far to degrade the beauty of St. Paul's, Wren's masterpiece. For a while, the outcry against this work was as loud as it was persistent. The press was almost unanimous in condemning it; questions were asked in the House, architects protested officially; even students, who are so seldom heard of in London, joined in the chorus of criticism and condemnation. Nothing came of it all; England's cathedrals are in the power of dean and chapter to "restore" and ruin as they see fit. The work went on in St. Paul's, and now, as if to challenge his critics, Sir William Richmond has collected together his life's work, from the early portrait group of 1864, which made a stir at Oxford, because the three "Sisters" were the daughters of Dean Liddell, down to the studies and cartoons for the decorations that have forced him into such unpleasant prominence. The collection, however, but plays into the hands of his critics, for it more than justifies them in their attitude. Richmond began his career as a disciple of the Pre-Raphaelites, and "The Sisters" is really a remarkable performance, for the youth he was when he painted it. But gradually, in his portraits, you see how the decorative ideals took possession of him, until, in his effort to build up a striking pattern out of elaborate costumes and the appropriate accessories, his sitter became for him a mere lay figure, useful as a motive for an ingenious and intricate arrangement. In their gorgeous robes, against gorgeous backgrounds, enclosed in gorgeous frames, his women too often degenerate into puppets, with hardly the semblance of life. On the other hand, in his large Academic pictures, you have proof of his weakness in composition, color, and drawing—that is, in the three essentials to great decoration. His portraits explain his reason for accepting the commission to decorate St. Paul's, though his experience as decorator was virtually all before him; his other pictures explain how ill qualified he was for the task. After seeing his exhibition, it is easier to understand his failure in Wren's Cathedral.

N. N.

Correspondence.

PRINCE ALBERT'S OPINION OF THE IRISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think I can help your correspondent "D. B." (February 14, note to the Queen in Ireland) to his lost reference. In the 'Life of Wilhelm von Humboldt,' the Prussian statesman and brother of Alexander, who wrote 'Kosmos,' Prince Albert is quoted as comparing the Irish to the Poles, in Baron von Humboldt's hearing. The Baron remarks: "Und dies ist der schöne Gemahl der Königin von Grossbritannien!"

The Life was published in the fifties, and I have not seen the book since. But though I cannot venture on the exact words, I don't think that either race was declared to be unworthy of sympathy. The Poles were just then at their lowest ebb, and for us who have an affection and respect for our fellow-subjects of the sister island, even though we may love them too well to part with them (as I do), it was a painful shock to learn that that was Prince Albert's view of them. And, being a painful shock, I have remembered the fact.—I remain, yours obediently,

S. I. Sidgwick.

Rugby, Eng., February 28, 1901.

"BIG KNIFE," "GREAT KNIFE," "LONG KNIFE."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Though the above expressions have had a limited vogue in this country for over a century and a quarter, yet their history has never been shown, the dictionaries mostly ignore them, and some of the explanations of their origin are open to doubt.

In 1643 Roger Williams, in his 'Key into the Language of America,' pp. 37, 38, recorded five Indian words, among them *Chaúqock*, all of which meant "a knife"; and then went on to observe: "Whence they call *English*-

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men Chäuquäquock, that is *Knive-men*, stone formerly being to them in stead of *Knives, Awle-blades, Hatchets* and *Howes.*" In 1691 Cotton Mather, in his 'Life of the Renowned John Eliot,' part iii., p. 78, remarked; "But our shiftless *Indians* were never Owners of so much as a *Knife*, till we come among them; their name for an *English-man* was a *Knife man*; and Stone was instead of Metal for their *tools.*" And in 1764 Gov. Hutchinson, in his 'History of Massachusetts Bay,' i., 478, said: "The French speak of others, viz. that, at certain repasts, they never make use of knives; it is not probable they ever had any to use, on any occasion, until they were brought to them from Europe; they called the first English, Knife-men." Though neither Mather nor Hutchinson refers to the above passage from Williams, yet clearly both had it in mind. Why, with the term "knifeman" so readily at hand, none of the expressions under discussion took root in New England, it would not be easy to say; but apparently they did not, for I know of no evidence to indicate that they were ever employed in this part of the country.

It was in Virginia that the expressions first came into actual use among the colonists, though seemingly not until about the middle of the eighteenth century. Col. James Smith, referring to events which took place about 1758, wrote:

"The next morning I met with a prisoner at this place, by the name of Thompson, who had been taken from Virginia. . . . I applied to the chiefs, who agreed to my proposal, and said they were anxious to see what the Great Knife (as they called the Virginian) could do. . . . When they returned from the battle to Fort Du Quesne, the Indians concluded that they would go to their hunting. The French endeavored to persuade them to stay and try another battle. The Indians said if it was only the red-coats they had to do with, they could soon subdue them, but they could not withstand *Ashalecoa*, or the Great Knife, which was the name they gave the Virginians." (*Account of Remarkable Occurrences*, 1870, pp. 100, 101, 104.)

Smith's book was first published in 1799, but parts of it may have been written earlier, and it seems not unsafe to assume that the expressions were in vogue when the events which Smith is relating occurred. The subsequent history of the terms is shown by the extracts which follow:

"The Shawanese are about 200 miles south of the Muskingum, on the Scioto, & can raise nearly the same number [of fighting men]. They have always shown great opposition to christianity, and have great hatred of the *Long Knife*, which is the name given by them to the *Virginians.*" 1772, Oct. 7, Rev. D. McClure, *Diary* (1899), 93.

"The Shawanese message is insolent enough; and we have a certain account that twenty of their warriors are gone out, but we have still reason to think they do not mean mischief to the people here, as they lay all to the charge of the Big Knife, as they call the Virginians." 1774, May 29, Arthur St. Clair, in *St. Clair Papers* (1882), i. 297.

"Mr. Butler informs me, he has a speech for the inhabitants of the forks of the Two Rivers, meaning our Province; and Blain has a speech to deliver to Mr. Connolly as representative for the Big Knife, so that I hope you will be up before the speeches will be delivered." 1774, June 17, A. Mackay, in *do.*, i 313.

"MR. WOOD informs the Committee, . . . that on the twenty-seventh [July] he delivered a speech to the Indians at the Wiandots town, which was as follows:

"'Brothers, the Wiandots and Taawaas,

"'Your Brothers of Virginia, in their great Council, are desirous of brightening the chain of friendship between you and them; . . .'

"To which the War Post returned the following answer.

"'Brothers, the Big Knife,

"'We have heard what you have said, and desire time to consider of it, when we will meet you in the Council House, at the time mentioned.'" 1775, Oct. 2, *Boston Gazette*, No. 1063, p. 4/1.

"The Grand Kite and his Nation living at Fort St Vincent told Mr. Hamilton that he and his people was Big Knives, and would not give their hands any more to the English, for he would shortly see his Father that was at Kaskaskias." 1779, Feb. 3, G. R. Clark, in P. Henry's *Life, Corr. & Speeches* (1891), iii. 221.

"I sent the following Speech to the different Tribes near the Lakes that was at war with us, to wit:

"To the Warriers of the different Nations.

"*Men and Warriers:* It is a long time since the Big Knives sent Belts of peace among You Soliciting of You not to listen to the bad talks and deceit of the English, as it would at some future day tend to the Destruction of Your Nations. You would not listen, but Joined the English against the Big Knives and spilt much Blood of Women & Children. . . . The Big Knives are Warriers, and look on the English as old Women and all those that Join him and are ashamed when they fight them because they are no Men." 1779, Nov. 19, G. R. Clark, *Campaign in the Illinois* (1869), 80, 81.

"I had probably travelled about two miles when suddenly I felt a hand laid upon my shoulder, and turning round, saw a naked Indian with a bow bent in his hand, and the arrow pointed towards me. . . . I now found myself completely in his power; but recollecting that if an enemy, he would have shot me before I saw him, I held out my hand, which he took, and afterwards laid his hand on my breast, and in the Osage language said, '*Moi-he ton-ga de-ah*,' literally in English, 'Big Knife you?' which luckily I understood, and answered, '*Hoya*,' (yes)." J. Bradbury, *Travels*, 1817, pp. 74, 75. In a note the author adds: "The Americans are called 'the Big Knives' by the Indians of the Missouri."

"I have myself, in 1782, while at Detroit, witnessed the Chippeways, who on meeting an American prisoner who was walking about, called out *Messamockkemaan*, (long knife) though he had no knife, sword, or dirk at his side." J. Heckewelder, *Account of the History, Manners & Customs of the Indian Nations*, 1819, p. 132.

"It has been taken for granted that he [Logan] did so listen, and that he then buried the hatchet, having slain just as many of the 'Long Knives' as the Virginians killed of Mingoes." 1882, W. H Smith, in *St. Clair Papers*, i. 317, *note*.

From these extracts it appears that the expressions came into vogue in Virginia and adjacent parts shortly after the middle of the eighteenth century; that during the colonial period they were applied to the Virginians only; and that, when the Revolutionary war broke out, the terms, perhaps because the Virginians were identified with the American cause, were used to designate those who revolted against the British.

G. H. Loskiel, in his 'Geschichte der Mission der Evangelischen Brüder unter den Indianern in Nordamerika,' 1789, i. 23, employed the term *Langmesser;* but I give the passage in full from the English translation by C. I. La Trobe, 1794, Part I., p. 18: "Since the late war, which procured the independence of America, the white Americans are all called *Big-knives* by the Indians, from the long swords worn by them." As the expression itself was well known before the outbreak of the Revolutionary war, Loskiel's explanation cannot be accepted. It was, however, adopted by Bartlett, who in 1848 said that the term "signifies the wearers of swords." In their 'Dictionary of Slang, Jargon, and Cant,' 1890, ii. 27, Barrère and Leland observe: "Long-knife (American), a white man, so called from the swords which the first settlers wore. The term came from the Algonkin Indians. In Chippeway to this day the term for a white man is *chee-móckomon, i. e.*, great or *long-knife.*" Under date of January 28, 1806, Z. M. Pike said: "Struck for a point about 3 miles, where we found a Chipeway lodge of one man, his wife, and five children, and one old woman. They received us with every mark, that distinguished their barbarity, such as setting their dogs on ours, trying to thrust their hands into our pockets, &c. but we convinced them that we were not afraid, and let them know, we were Chewockomen; (Americans) when they used us more civilly" ('Sources of the Mississippi,' 1810, p. 65). Upon this passage the late Dr. Elliott Coués remarked:

"'Chewockomen,' as well as the 'Chewockmen' of the 1807 ed., is far from any recognized or acceptable spelling of the Chippewa word, one fairly good form of which is *Kitchimokomen*. Schoolcraft has Chimoquemon. It means Big Knives or Long Knives, and is commonly so translated, the reference being either to the swords of the officers or the bayonets of the soldiers, which have often struck Indians forcibly, both in a literal and in a figurative sense. Kitchimokomen corresponds to the Sioux name *Isantanka*, of the same meaning and application." (*Expeditions of Pike*, 1895, i. 148 note.)

A quite different theory was advanced in 1851 by Wills De Haas. At some uncertain time, but apparently about 1760, some settlers on the Monongahela were cut off by a party of Delawares; one who escaped carried the news to Fort Pitt, and Col. Gibson was at once sent down the river to intercept the Indians.

"In this, however, he failed; but came accidentally upon a small party of Mingoes, encamped on Cross creek. Little Eagle, a distinguished chief of that tribe, commanded the party, and discovering the whites about the same time that Gibson saw them, he gave a fearful whoop, and at the same instant discharged his gun at the leader of the whites. The ball passed through Gibson's coat, but without injuring him. With the quickness of a tiger he sprang upon his foe, and with one sweep of his sword, severed the head of the Little Eagle from his body. Two others were shot dead by the whites, but the remainder escaped, and reported that the white captain had cut off the head of their chief with a *long knife*. This was the origin of that celebrated and fearfully significant term, the 'long-knives.' It was applied throughout the war to the Virginians, and even to this day has not been forgotten by some of the Western tribes. Captain Gibson, himself a Virginian, acquired the *soubriquet* of 'Long-knife Warrior,' and was known by it always afterward." (*History of the Early Settlement and Indian Wars of Western Virginia*, pp. 215, 216.)

This bears every appearance of being one of those stories which, unheard of until years—in this case almost a century—after the event, yield such joy to the heart of the biographer and the commentator.

Until evidence to the contrary is produced, it seems safe to conclude that Roger Williams, who wrote early and from an intimate personal knowledge of the Indians, was correct in his explanation that Englishmen were called "knifemen" because they introduced knives into America; and that, when the expressions under discussion came into vogue a century later, the whites had forgotten their true origin.

Albert Matthews.

Boston, February 24, 1901.

Notes.

The Harriman Alaska Expedition will be the most striking single volume in the

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spring list of Doubleday, Page & Co. Some twenty-five of the illustrations will be in color; three times as many will be photogravures, and there will be 100 drawings besides. William H. Dall, C. Hart Merriam, Henry Gannett, George Bird Grinnell, Bernhard E. Fernow, Charles Keeler, John Muir, and John Burroughs contribute chapters whose topics will be readily divined in each case. 'Shells and Shell-Builders,' by Charles W. Johnson, and 'The True Story of Capt. John Smith,' by Miss Katharine Pearson Woods, are also in preparation. Of the forty-volume Shakspere which the same house has in hand, under the editorship of Prof. Mark H. Liddell, lately of the University of Texas, the prospectus shows an intention to construct a new critical text from the various Quarto and Folio sources, with the inestimable aid of the Oxford English Dictionary as far as it has proceeded, and with the least possible emendation. For the spelling, the Folio will be followed, as most faithfully representing the difference between Shakspere's English and modern, and for the sake of a uniformity not obtainable from the Quartos. Elizabethan typography will not be imitated, and the punctuation will be cautiously modernized. A novel feature will be marginal cross-references (in the fashion of the Oxford Bible) in conjunction with glosses, as a help in mastering the range of associated ideas which words then had, quite different in extent from that now attaching to them. Notes at the end of each play will complete the apparatus. The line-numbering and the division into acts and scenes will accord with those of the Globe edition. The Merrymount Press will manufacture the work with its customary taste and elegance. "Macbeth" will lead the series.

'Reconstruction in Theology,' by Prof. Henry Churchill King of Oberlin College; 'The Books of the New Testament,' by the Rev. Leighton Pullan; 'The Limits of Evolution,' by Prof. G. H. Howison; and 'The Elements of the Theory and Practice of Chemistry,' by Mary E. Williams and Katharine Rolston Fisher, are in the press of Macmillan Co.

The three supplemental volumes of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' will, in the main, be devoted to winding up the last century; but an exception will be made in favor of Queen Victoria, the Bishop of London, and a few other notables whose lives ended in the early weeks of the present year.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have nearly ready 'The Working Principles of Rhetoric,' by Prof. John Franklin Genung of Amherst College.

Longmans, Green & Co. are to publish the Life of Max Müller, undertaken by his widow, who desires for this purpose the loan of any letters in the possession of Professor Müller's correspondents. They should be addressed to her at No. 7 Norham Gardens, Oxford, and will be duly returned.

It is announced that Dr. A. F. Chamberlain of Clark University, Worcester, Mass., will assume the general management of the *Journal of American Folk-Lore*, Mr. W. W. Newell remaining as associate editor, and being still the medium of communication with the American Folk-Lore Society.

The sixth of the seven volumes of the Siddal edition of the works of Dante Gabriel Rossetti (London: Ellis & Elvey) constitutes part iii. of the vague subdivision (which excludes 'The House of Life' and the Ballads) called "Poems." In this section, most curious are the "Sonnets and Verses for Rossetti's Works of Art," as to which William Rossetti's explanation in the preface is helpful in pointing out the pictures which failed to be produced as embodiments of the poetic conception.

There are one-third as many photographic illustrations as pages in 'A New Way Around an Old World'—namely, by water and rail from Vladivostok to Moscow (Harpers). They are excellent, much superior in quality, it must be said, to the text, which is from the pen of the tourist, the Rev. Francis E. Clark, D.D., President of the United Society of Christian Endeavor. His party was, he thinks, "the first Americans, and in all probability the first foreigners," to achieve this trip, and his unskilful, unadorned narrative and rather thin observations have a certain historic value in consequence. The date of the journey was just before the Chinese outbreak, or but a little in advance of that recorded in these pages by the Rev. G. Frederick Wright of Oberlin. Readers of the latter writer's correspondence will find this volume a pictorial supplement in matters superficial. A vocabulary of "some necessary Russian words" is added, but as the Russian characters are used without transliteration or indication of pronunciation, the author's complacency in offering "a very small fraction of a loaf" when he might as well offer a stone, is amusing. Dr. Clark testifies to the general courtesy and considerateness of his Russian fellow-travellers.

Americans can scarcely feel the need of such a guide-book as that entitled 'New Lands,' by Hugh Robert Mill (London: Chas. Griffin & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.), but to the home-seekers of Great Britain it may yield gracious light. It deals fairly and honestly with the relative advantages, not ignoring the disadvantages, of Canada, Latin America, the Falkland Islands, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. The assumption is frankly made that the Anglo-Saxon should not venture upon the perils of pioneering in tropical countries, and no information is given concerning regions warmer than those embraced within the semi-tropical belts. The United States receives attention in one chapter, though it is classed among the settled countries. The book is written mainly in the interest of emigration into the British colonial dependencies.

The January and February numbers of the Bulletin of the New York Public Library contain a check-list of general municipal documents pertaining to this city and accessible in the Library, another of city maps and atlases, a third of guide-books, and a fourth of general newspapers published here.

In his excavations at Sandahannah, Dr. Bliss discovered "sixteen little figures of men and women in lead, two to three inches in height, very roughly executed. The personages, all nude with one exception, are represented in strange and distorted positions, as if they were writhing in suffering and torture. They have all, without exception, the peculiarity of having the hands and feet laden with bonds and fetters designedly complicated." Dr. Bliss supposed these figures to represent captives, but M. Clermont-Ganneau, discussing the question in the last Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund, argues rightly, we think, that these little lead figures represent persons against whom incantations were directed. At the same place there were found some fifty small stone tablets with Greek inscriptions which Professor Sayce, the only person, apparently, who has had the opportunity of examining them, declares to be "magical charms and incantations." Lead and wax have played, it will be remembered, the same part in magic, owing to the softness of the material and the fact that it is easily melted. Every one is familiar with the old custom of making a figure in wax of the person to be bewitched, which figure was melted before the fire, or pierced with needles and the like. These lead figures, apparently, represent the persons to be bewitched, who are bound with the fetters of the evil spirits to whom they are to be handed over. In a footnote in the same number of the Quarterly, M. Ganneau suggests the possibility, which we think to be a probability, that these figures were "destined, like the wax images of the spell-bound, to be finally melted in some magic ceremony" (p. 58). There is a most amusing instance of conflict of authorities in this number of the Quarterly in the explanation of a curious mosaic found at Husn in the Hauran (p. 92). Père Séjourné believes it to represent "a mathematical division of the circle," but M. Cognat thinks that it was "for a game of hop-scotch."

'Die Deutschen Kolonien in Wort und Bild,' by Gustav Meinecke, Director of the Kolonialmuseum, is, as the title suggests, a somewhat popular treatise. The author's name, however, guarantees something more than sensational treatment, even in a popular work. A short history of the seventeenth-century Brandenburg possessions on the Guinea coast is followed by a series of chapters on the several present-day protectorates of the Empire. Among the latter we note the recently acquired Caroline and Palau (Pelew) Islands, and the "leased" port of Kiaotchau. All the colonies are treated systematically under such heads as climate, vegetation, government, and missions. The Germans were happily surprised in getting hold of the Pacific islands mentioned, for which they had been negotiating in vain; they promise themselves great commercial advantages from these way-stations on the Oriental trade-routes. The Central American canal, they think, will further enhance the value of these islands. As for the virtual seizure of the Chinese port and its environs, it was a premeditated action, the fruit of a settled purpose. The Germans, when they entered the field fifteen years ago, found the districts available for colonies pretty well occupied, but they determined to be in at the finish in any Asiatic dissolution. Their tenure of the port is for ninety-nine years. This (folio) volume is liberally equipped with illustrations from photographs, etc.; a characteristic likeness of Prince Bismarck, "The Founder of the German Colonial Power," occupies the position of prominence.

In Boshart's 'Zehn Jahre Africanischen Lebens,' the military element is prominent, and a certain bluffness and directness of expression attest the soldier. Boshart was sent by the Southwest Africa Company to investigate the political and commercial possibilities of the districts under its control. With regard to the company itself, the author is a sharp critic; he asserts that its funds are spent extravagantly, that they go to pay for expensive quarters, banquets, etc., in Berlin, while progress in the colony is rendered exceedingly painful and problematic because

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of lack of adequate financial support. He deals with questions of acclimatization at some length and from personal experience. Collapse in the tropics is largely a result of general weakening due to heat, hardships, coarse food, etc.; then comes the dread African fever, from which there is no immunity, even for animals. Even without the fever, the strain on the nervous system resolves itself frequently into excessive irritability, melancholy, and insanity. In short, even if "meteorological acclimatization" is possible, "pathological acclimatization" is an illusion. This being the case, the white man cannot in person develop the tropics; the native is absolutely indispensable, and if he will not work, he must be made to work. Hence, in common with other German authorities, Boshart advocates a system of compulsion analogous to the Dutch "cultuurstelsel."

Africa is the principal subject in the *Geographical Journal* for February, the first article being the account by Major Gibbons of his difficult ascent of the middle Zambezi to which we have already referred. The most interesting incident of his journey was the trial of two chiefs by a court-martial of some fifty chiefs presided over by King Lewanika, a most intelligent African sovereign. Major Gibbons and his colleagues can claim a high rank among travellers, not only on account of the extent and value of their explorations, but also because, in journeying over 20,000 miles, mainly in the most remote parts of Africa, "no one of us," says their leader, "has found it necessary to take a single human life, and, for my own part, I would have no compunction in travelling again unarmed over any part of those 20,000 miles." In striking contrast to this experience, M. Foureau's expedition from Algeria to the French Congo bears at times a strong resemblance to a simple raid. His narrative contains little worthy of note except this passage in respect to the shores of Lake Chad: "The ground is everywhere strewn with the remains of huge fish, and the whitened bones of hippopotamuses, crocodiles, and elephants. Game simply swarms, and on one occasion the troops of antelopes occupied more than ten minutes in galloping past our encampment. Giraffes, lions, and rhinoceroses are also abundant." H. Arctowski of the Belgian Antarctic Expedition tells of his twenty landings, with graphic descriptions of scenery, as well as numerous details in respect to the configuration of the southern continent, its geological formation, and the peculiarities of its cap of ice and snow. Each article is illustrated and is accompanied by maps.

Revista de Construcciones y Agrimensura is a technical journal, issued monthly in Havana, which has now entered upon its third year of publication. It contains many excellent articles on architecture, which are accompanied by plans and views of buildings in Cuba and South America, and also articles and news relating to surveying, roads, and railroads, and engineering construction in general. It is interesting and gratifying to note that much space is devoted to technical education. The reorganization of the University of Havana, ordered by Gen. Chaffee in April, 1900, included the establishment of courses in civil, mechanical, and electrical engineering; these have now been definitely laid out, and professors and students are actively at work. The Havana School of Surveying and Civil Engineering, which existed prior to the Spanish war, has been abandoned, and its work transferred to the University. The total number of students in the University of Havana is now 629, of whom 309 are in the department of medicine and pharmacy, 165 in the department of law, and 155 in the department of letters and sciences, in which the engineering courses of study are included. These courses are four years in length, and embrace all the topics of American technical colleges, while the published examination questions indicate thoroughness of instruction. There are also minor technical institutes, called Schools for Surveyors, at Matanzas, Puerto Principe, and Santiago, which have courses of one and two years in length. With sound scientific education as a basis, the industrial development of Cuba is sure to proceed on stable and satisfactory lines.

The part of women in the efforts of the past twenty years to make good and useful citizens of our Indians is well described by Miss Mary E. Dewey in her brief 'Historical Sketch' of the Women's National Indian Association. Beginning with a petition to Congress to redeem the pledges to the nation's wards, its most important achievement was the securing the passage of the Severalty Bill in February, 1887. "Since this act became law, more than 60,000 Indians have taken up individual allotments; 25,000 have become citizens and voters; and 35,000 pay taxes in aid of the Government. The industrial products of Indian labor are valued at more than a million and a quarter of dollars annually, and all educated Indians look to this bill as the Magna Charta of their race." The day of its passage is celebrated at Hampton and Carlisle. The Association's principal work now is to give information as to the condition and needs of the Indians, to provide teachers, open libraries, build hospitals, and to send "clothing and comforts to the aged and helpless of seventy tribes." To illustrate what is being done, a single tribe, the Navajos, is chosen, and its progress in enlightenment is sketched from the brush hut covered with skins or a blanket to the "decent little houses where the light comes in and the smoke goes out—those two movements typifying the whole change from barbarism to civilization." Frequent acknowledgment is made of the cordial assistance given by the Government to the Association. "Four-fifths of the Indians now support themselves by respectable industry. Most of these are farmers or stock-raisers, a large number are mechanics, and some, both men and women, are taking good rank as doctors, lawyers, ministers, nurses, journalists, and assistant teachers. A religion of hope, of joy, and of peace has taken strong root among them."

Public education in Alaska, to judge by Commissioner Harris's 'Report for 1898-99,' volume ii., is progressing but slowly, if at all; the total enrolment in the public schools, which had risen from 794 in 1892-93 to 1,395 in 1896-97, having since then slightly fallen off. We do not doubt, however, that, with a meagre appropriation of $35,000 annually, all is being done that can reasonably be expected. The Sitka Training and Industrial School, carried on by the Presbyterian missions, with the aid of five additional teachers paid by the Bureau of Education, seems to be doing a useful work in training pupils from the principal tribes in a dozen or more trades, the introduction of which must contribute to the advancement of civilization. There are 150 pupils in that institution. To that other civilizing agent in Alaska, the reindeer, a special chapter is again devoted in the Report. Several papers on the subject of "Education and Crime," among them one of decided interest by Horace Mann, of the year 1847, fill the first 100 pages of the volume; while consular reports on various topics bearing upon education in European countries and an enormous amount of statistics make up the bulk of the publication. It is a pity that some of the statistical matter is so far from being up to date that it no longer gives a correct idea of the actual status of the institutions concerned.

—Volume iv. of the 'Writings of James Monroe' (Putnams) shows him to be still very sensitive and suspicious. He goes to France, where the purchase of Louisiana is effected, and then takes the place of Rufus King in London. Here he was displeased because the British ministers did not return his calls; he was disgusted by some remarks made respecting America, and fancied the Queen passed him in the crowd intentionally. "It might not be so, as her drawing-room is without order, a confused multitude, and those are sooner dispatched who have most strength of body and nerves, and as she is old and might [not] see, or seeing not know me." The success of King's negotiations had left little for Monroe beyond the apparently insoluble problem of impressments. The commerce of the United States enjoyed great freedom through orders rather than through laws, and had more to fear from Spanish privateers and French brigandage than from English restrictions. He prepared Jefferson for a failure to obtain any redress in the case of the seamen, and rightly counselled a "firm, manly stile of conciliation." When, later, the English began to seize American ships, he gave up his plan of returning to the United States, and hung around London and the Ministers in a not very dignified manner, meeting rebuff after rebuff. From this attitude of expectancy he was rudely awakened by a rumor that "Senator" Adams was to succeed him—a rumor which called out an indignant and reproachful letter to Madison.

—His suspicious mind gave him much unhappiness, and not infrequently made him ridiculous. The glory of the Louisiana treaty was enough for two; and if either signer deserved the more credit, Livingston was the one. No sooner was that state paper completed than Monroe began to discount Livingston's merit, and in half-pitying tone to disparage his ability. He hinted at weaknesses, insinuated jealousy, and directly charged upon him the failure of the utterly impossible Spanish mission. Finally he denounced him in unmeasured terms. His acts were not attributable to folly alone, but to the "grossest iniquity." "Be assured that he will poison what he touches. . . . In short, he is the man of all others whom you should avoid, as most deserving the execrations of his country." It is difficult to see what Livingston had done to deserve such language. It was bad enough taste to write thus to Madison; but Monroe also sought to diminish Livingston's agency in letters to the Virginia Senators, and even to the British Ministers. Others fell under his displeasure. King, a far abler man and diplomat, had been "overreached" by the English, and "any old woman from our country" would have been equally successful in pre-

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serving friendship. Monroe's ideas on the proper conduct of a Minister (p. 407) are characteristic, but these solemn and portentously long letters contain so little of merit from the official side, that it is reasonable to judge that Monroe fell far short of what was expected of a diplomat. They seem to have been written for political effect in the United States, and are marked throughout by narrow prejudices which easily explain why Monroe was not a success in his missions. The editing of this volume still shows carelessness and a deficient sense of proportion. Why omit Monroe's Spanish journal?

—The Fourth Annual Report of the Commissioners of Fisheries, Game and Forests of the State of New York is, like the earlier reports, a handsome volume, containing a number of colored illustrations of birds and fish. The report proper, with protracted schedules, occupies 193 pages, leaving 248 for contributed papers treating of Phthisis, Lobsters, Forest Fires, and other relevant topics. The final paper is called a "Bibliography of the Adirondacks," and includes such items as "Clipping from a newspaper, February, 1883," while it omits many of the State's own publications. The Chief Protector, with cautious optimism, "confidently asserts that all statements that the Fisheries, Game and Forest Laws are everywhere disregarded and violated are reckless statements." The Superintendent of Forests is more explicit, and reports that, except in case of disputed or mistaken boundaries, there has been no timber cutting or trespassing on State land during the year. Of results other than negative neither officer can tell us much. Like the English sovereign, the Forest Commission reigns but does not govern. The Forest Preserve Board buys land; the towns levy taxes and other charges on it and spend the money; fires are looked after, not to say nursed, on a per-diem basis; and little besides police powers are left to the Commission. In the Forest Preserve the lumberman is rapidly completing the removal of the merchantable spruce and hemlock. Even the small and crooked sticks which in former days were spared are now taken by the pulp mills. The balsamic woods are thus becoming a thing of the past, and the characteristic Adirondack forest is now composed of elderly hardwood trees, of no commercial value, which smother the new crop of soft wood. Most of the State's woodlands belong to this class of decrepit forests. Yet on State lands acts of forestry, properly so called—the thinning of the growth, the removal and sale of the ripe merchantable timber, the cutting of worthless or diseased trees, the prevention of fires, the planting of young trees—are all hampered, and most of them expressly prohibited, by law. It is expected that the present Legislature will establish a new Forest Board. If ample and undivided power and responsibility can be given to this Board, the State will have in the Adirondacks not merely a possession but a productive asset.

—The Archæological Report of the Egypt Exploration Fund for 1899-1900, edited by F. Ll. Griffith, M.A., is bewilderingly full for condensed notice. The work undertaken in behalf of the University of California by the well-known English scholars, Grenfell and Hunt, is described as "on the right lines, though hitherto not very successful." Under the head of "Foreign Relations," Mr. Arthur J. Evans reports on "The Palace of Knossos in its Egyptian Relations," pointing out the mutual interchange between Greece and Egypt in the pre-Mycenæan period. Incidentally he discusses the newly discovered Cretan writings, in their relation to the so-called Phœnician alphabet. He rejects entirely the lately prevalent theory of the Egyptian origin of that alphabet, first propounded by De Rougé, which, he thinks, must, as a result of his discoveries, "be definitely abandoned." "Taking the theoretic pictorial originals of the Phœnician forms, as indicated by their names, it appears that over two-thirds of them correspond with actual types of one or other of the Cretan systems," the earlier hieroglyphic, or the later and much more advanced linear system. Mr. Evans announces, by the way, that he has succeeded in elucidating the system of numeration in the linear inscriptions, and that it is decimal, like the Egyptian. He is of opinion that there was a parallel evolution of alphabetic writing on both sides of the Mediterranean basin, by the Semites of the Syrian coast on one side, and the Cretans on the other. Precisely what Mr. Evans means by the "theoretic pictorial originals of the Phœnician forms" we do not know. Whence were the names derived which have come down to us in both the Semitic and the Greek forms of the alphabet? The determination of the origin of those names will, we think, be final in the determination of the origin of the alphabet.

—With the views of Mr. Evans, expressed in the Archæological Report, it is interesting to compare those of Dr. Flinders Petrie, contained in his notes on the objects discovered at Abydos, in the last (eighteenth) Memoir of the Egypt Exploration Fund, "The Royal Tombs of the First Dynasty" (1900, Part I., page 31). He finds a definite system of signs, which he calls a "signary," quite separate from "the hieroglyphic writing and its hieratic and demotic derivations," in use "from about 6000 B. C. down to 1200 B. C. or later," which "it seems impossible to separate . . . from the similar forms found in other lands connected with Egypt from 800 B. C. down to later times; we may find many of these also in the Kretan inscriptions long before 800 B. C." He concludes that a great body of these signs (signary) were in use in the countries around the Mediterranean for "several thousand years," that the Phœnicians selected a short series of these signs for numerical purposes, that the use for numeration gave the series a fixed order and system, which ultimately forced it on all the countries with which the Phœnicians traded, driving out all other signs. A glance over this volume shows that although the royal tombs at Abydos had been explored four times before, very much valuable material had been overlooked. There are in this first half of the memoir sixty-seven pages of plates, of which fifteen are devoted to marks on pottery of the first dynasty, 1,465 different marks being represented, while more than thirty plates deal with the earliest rude inscriptions, seals, and the like, the whole forming a most valuable contribution to the study of the earliest forms of marking and writing.

—Next May's total eclipse of the sun, longer than any eclipse hitherto, will be observed from a track crossing Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, and Ceram, in regions for the most part inhospitable and far from accessible. Not enheartening are the prospects of the clearest skies in the Dutch East Indies at noon on the 18th of May, but the astronomers of many nations will take the great and necessary risk, and already their parties are en route. Besides the three English parties, under the Astronomer Royal, Professor Turner, and Mr. Maunder, the probable French party led by M. Deslandres, and several expeditions under the enlightened patronage of the Netherlands Government, there will be at least four American parties, the most ambitious being that organized by Prof. S. J. Brown, astronomical director of the Naval Observatory at Washington. The astronomers and physicists of this expedition set out for Manila on February 23 on the transport *Sheridan*, and expect to reach the Philippines about the middle of March, whence a vessel of our navy will be told to convey them to Padang on the west coast of Sumatra, near which the total eclipse will last almost six and one-half minutes. Professor Skinner is in charge of the party, with the coöperation of Professor Eichelberger and Assistants Littell, Peters, Jewell, and Dinwiddie of the Observatory staff. Also, as invited members of the expedition, go Professor Barnard of the Yerkes Observatory, Dr. Humphreys and Dr. Curtis of the University of Virginia, Dr. Gilbert of the Johns Hopkins University, and Dr. Mitchell of Columbia. Their work will be in large part photographic, embracing also research with polariscopes and spectroscopes. For photographing the coronal spectrum simultaneously on both sides of the sun, a long plate will be used with the expectation of ascertaining whether the corona rotates bodily with the sun, as was inferred by M. Deslandres from the eclipse of 1893. A second party from the United States, organized by Professor Todd of Amherst College, sailed from New York on the 2d of March, directly for Singapore, expecting to establish itself on the island of Singkep, about 170 miles southeastward towards Batavia. Mr. Percy Wilson of the New York Botanical Museum accompanies this expedition as naturalist. A third party, the details of which have not yet come to hand, is equipped and sent out by Professor Campbell, director of the Lick Observatory; and the fourth is organized by Professor Burton of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. A possible fifth party will consist of Mr. A. Lawrence Rotch of Boston and Professor Upton of Brown University, leaving for Padang via Genoa about April 1; their work will be largely meteorological.

WILKINSON'S MILITARY ESSAYS.

War and Policy. By Spenser Wilkinson. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1900.

Mr. Spenser Wilkinson has given an appropriate title to a series of essays which treat of statecraft in, and political consequences of, war, as well as the military science which is applied, neglected, or developed in its prosecution. In the first essay the writer—premising that neither the military writer who confines himself to strategy, tactics, marches, and battles, nor the political writer who, to avoid the professional discussion of war, assumes that, once begun, it is to run its course while policy remains suspended, gives a true picture of war—says that the chief difference between the wars of the nineteenth century and earlier

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ones resulted rather from changes in the political world than from technical improvements in military science. The monarch of the eighteenth century would readily set in motion his little army of paid soldiers for some trivial question personal to himself or his house; but to-day there are no longer family or dynastic interests separable from those of the nation, and the ruler of a great nation, even if a monarchical state, conceives that he represents the national interests or will, and is impelled to, or restrained from, war by the vastness of the interests to be affected and the passions to be aroused by an appeal to its arbitrament. "A nation will not throw itself into a fight unless it is deeply moved, and it will not be aroused except by a cause profoundly affecting the sentiments or interests of the mass of the people." "The great characteristic of modern war is the inevitability which pervades it."

In the subsequent essays, which were written each for a specific occasion, the writer investigates the origin, motive, and conduct of most of the great wars of the nineteenth century, as well as those of Gustavus Adolphus and the French Revolution. As a whole, they furnish an interesting and instructive example of weaving politics with military narrative and science into the history of wars. The writer has not escaped the common failure of historians to include the character of the people engaged in war—an element which often upsets the formulæ upon which military experts forecast results. For example, the assumption that a force in earthworks sufficient to cover their front with rifle fire will inevitably repel the attack of a given number of men, does not always illuminate the past for the student, or establish a safe rule for the future for the soldier. The moral stamina of the rank and file, and the character of the officers, must be taken into account. They cannot be valued like chessmen.

The refrain which is constantly encountered in these essays is the warning to the English people that the penalty inflicted on the loser in modern war is limited only by the tolerance of neutral powers; that war between Great Britain and other great nations is inevitable; that she cannot depend upon the alliance or friendship of any Power; that "she is compelled either to be the first of nations and to lead mankind, or to lose, not merely her empire, but her very independence," and that her first and last duty is to prepare, and at all times remain prepared, for war. The author intimates his regret that the Government has on several occasions neglected to throw down the gauntlet to one great Power or another. It would be sadly disillusionizing to those of us who credited the action of Great Britain in the Venezuela affair to magnanimous forbearance, to accept his conclusion that it was a surrender "inexplicable except on the hypothesis" that the Cabinet "believed the army and navy unready to take up a quarrel." Unlike many of his countrymen, Mr. Wilkinson seems not to have a friendly sentiment aroused by the "tumultuous silence" which fell upon the Venezuela debate in Congress and in our press when the German Emperor seemed to seize our quarrel with England as an occasion for interfering in South Africa.

Upon the technical side, the learning in grand strategy which is shown in these essays is not always matched by familiarity with modern conditions in actual combat. Referring to the repulse of a charge of the Danes in 1864 by the rifle fire of a Prussian captain's command, it is said that this settled the question between the bayonet and the bullet; and later, in an essay written in 1900, this passage is encountered: "It must be at least a dozen years ago that the spade was adopted as an offensive weapon to enable the advancing rifleman to hold his own against counter attack." The supremacy of the rifle bullet over the bayonet was settled in the larger and fiercer combat of Fredericksburg in 1862; and thirty-six years ago at Spottsylvania, Cold Harbor, and Petersburg the art of covering the advance with the spade was displayed in effective form.

An admirable review of the events leading up to the American civil war, is followed by a masterly exposition on broad lines of the strategy developed in that war. In the chapter entitled "Retrospect" it is said that, while it is doubtful whether the plan on which the war was conducted was ever devised by a single mind, as a matter of fact, if a master in the art of war like Napoleon had approached the problem which was presented at the outset to the Northern armies, he would have adopted as his plan that which they, slowly and perhaps as the logic of events, put into practice, in blockading the ports, keeping the Confederate force on the frontier from the Mississippi to the Atlantic occupied in active hostilities, conquering the control of the Mississippi, penetrating by the Cumberland and Tennessee to Chattanooga and Atlanta, and sweeping thence through the Confederacy to the sea, and then up the coast to take its army in Virginia in the rear. It is the author's opinion that the possession of a navy by the North was the decisive factor in the war. Taken literally, this statement is inaccurate, because at the outbreak of the war the fleet consisted of only thirty-five serviceable ships, carrying four hundred and sixty-two guns—a force inadequate for the semblance of a blockade. Here is an instance where, to trace cause and effect, it is essential to estimate the character and genius of the opposing peoples. The South, equally with the North, had a coast on which to breed sailors, and coal, iron, timber, and all other materials with which navies are built and armed; but the North alone had the genius and mechanical skill to create the ships for a navy, and the sailors to man them. Between March, 1861, and December, 1864, 210 vessels and 1,675 guns were put into commission. It was this new navy that made the blockade effectual. It is not possible to disprove the assertion that the Confederacy could not have been overthrown without the use of the navy, but the same is true of the army, and it is no less accurate to describe it, than to describe the navy, as the decisive factor in the conflict. While the blockade caused the Confederates to suffer grievously for the materials of war, and the want of them greatly increased the disadvantage of disparity in numbers, yet in no important battle or campaign can their defeat be traced to a want of such materials. They were beaten only by the hard fighting of superior numbers, and the immediate cause of their surrender was the depletion of their ranks. Out of an enlistment estimated at 1,200,000, there were only 175,000 men left in the field throughout the Confederacy at the time of Lee's surrender. Without this fighting to a finish it may be doubted whether the South would have rested content not to try conclusions again.

In one of the essays, the author falls into the ways of the romantic novelists in estimating the value of service under fire in forming soldiers. He says of the army with which McClellan took the field in the spring of 1862, that it "at that time lacked the most essential quality of an army—the soldierly spirit. Enthusiasm, devotion, bravery, and obedience were not wanting, but the great organism had not yet received that breath of life which gives to the military community an almost indestructible vitality, but which no army possesses until it has been in the presence of the destroying angel." The record tells a different story. The force engaged at Williamsburg and Fair Oaks displayed the steadiness of veterans. The idea that a baptism of fire is necessary to make a steady soldier may be sound where an army drafted from peasantry is concerned, but it is not applicable to Americans. With them discipline, and discipline only, is essential. Disciplined they fight as well in their first as their second battle. A very recent example of this was seen at Santiago, where probably there was not a man in the ranks of the American army who had ever seen a pitched battle.

McClellan is termed "a good strategist," and it is said that the strained relations between the President and himself weakened his resolution and compelled him to be cautious, and "to avoid risks when the only way to success lay in risking everything," and that when he was recalled, the command was given to Pope, who "brought the army back to Acquia Creek," whereby "the inestimable advantages of unassailable communications" and of a base of operations not twenty-five miles from Richmond were "thrown away." It was not Pope but Burnside who, four months later, brought the army to Fredericksburg, with its base at Acquia Creek, and McClellan's caution was not compelled by his relations with the President. On the contrary, the latter again and again urged McClellan to strike. McClellan with 85,000 men besieged less than 25,000 at Yorktown, and neglected the opportunity to carry the lines by storm which was presented to him on April 16 at Lee's Mills, but later professed the desire to carry the stronghold at Richmond by direct attack. He had 115,000 men present for duty, and expressed the belief that the enemy's force was equal to his. He demanded McDowell's corps of 20,000 to insure success. His critics have accepted the issue thus made by him, and have condemned him for not attacking with the force which he had; but we now can see that this has been a false issue, for, although there were only about 70,000 men in the works at Richmond, the experience of 1864 at Spottsylvania, Cold Harbor, and Petersburg teaches that this number was ample to hold well-planned works against three times its number. Gen. Humphreys, one of the most accomplished soldiers and resolute commanders, in the light of his long experience and study, expressed the opinion in his 'Virginia Campaign' (page 75), that, in suitable intrenchments, the strength of the army sustaining the attack is more than quadrupled. As Grant learned this in the campaign of 1864, McClellan cannot be censured for not perceiving it in 1862. McClellan had no chance of winning at Richmond except in

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the open field. When this chance was presented to him at Fair Oaks, at Gaines's Mill, and at Malvern Hill, he neglected it. On these fields, as well as in the Antietam campaign, he forfeited the right to be considered a good strategist or a good tactician.

Military writers who dwell upon the importance of the James River as a line of communication, are oblivious of the fact that the campaigns of three years proved that it was entirely feasible to maintain lines of communication in moving on Richmond from the Rappahannock, which river was reached by McClellan's advance in 1862. Lincoln, in his letter to McClellan of April 9, defined the strategic situation with great precision in this passage: "You will do me the justice to remember I always insisted that going down the bay in search of a field, instead of fighting at or near Manassas, was only shifting, and not surmounting, a difficulty; that we would find the same enemy and the same or equal intrenchments at either place." Humphreys, writing nearly twenty years after the war in the work above cited (page 8), pronounced the Rapidan route to have been preferable to the Peninsula, as "giving opportunities for flanking operations by the whole army, and a freer handling of it, with more opportunities of success in destroying the power of the Army of Northern Virginia," while covering Washington quite as well.

The author says that after Shiloh there seems to have been doubt at Northern headquarters as to what the next move in the West should be. In this he fails to observe that, at that period, events were shaped by considerations of state, which, as he well says, may sometimes overrule strategic principles. The fixed purpose of President Lincoln was to occupy West Tennessee, to protect the Unionists there; and to this end Buell was directed on Chattanooga in 1862. The advance of Bragg into Kentucky stopped him.

A remarkable want of perspective characterizes the author's view of Nashville and the Appomattox campaign. Nashville is described as "the most crushing defeat inflicted upon any army during the war," while the Appomattox campaign is adverted to as follows:

"Grant determined, while keeping an adequate garrison in his lines, to move part of his army westward on to the two lines of railway still open for Lee's use. At the same time Lee evacuated Richmond and Petersburg and marched westward. But Grant, prepared, was quickly on his track, and as Lee's army was worn out, half-clad and half-fed, it was overtaken in a few days. When Grant was approaching the remnant of Lee's army, he sent a note to Lee, which led to an interview at which it was agreed that the officers and men of northern Virginia should lay down their arms and go home to fight no more."

This passage might be set to the air of a shepherd's pipe, so completely does it suppress the suggestion of hostile conflict. At Nashville, Thomas with 50,000 attacked Hood's 23,000, who fled with slight loss in killed and wounded, leaving 4,462 prisoners in Thomas's hands. In the Appomattox campaign of twelve days, March 24-April 9, Grant with 113,000 attacked Lee's 50,000, and drove them from their works at Petersburg and Five Forks. The Union army, in hostile contact during seven of the twelve days, suffered a loss of 9,066 killed and wounded and 1,714 missing, and killed and wounded more than 6,000, captured 40,000, and dispersed the remainder of the 54,000 Confederates.

An ingenious parallel is drawn between the American civil war and the Boer war. It is pointed out that in each the quarrel was between two opposing political systems and of slow growth, and the author alleges that Great Britain in the Boer war is the champion of personal freedom, as was the North in the civil war. He deplores the misfortune that the fight of the Transvaal for independence causes the wrongful impression that Great Britain, belying her traditions, is playing the part of an oppressor, as the fight of the South for independence veiled from Englishmen the fact that the North's was the cause of freedom. The author also remarks that the British statesmen in charge at the outbreak of the Boer war, like President Lincoln, have had to learn the art of directing great military operations as the war has gone along. A fault in the parallel which is not noticed is the fact that, unlike the North in the civil war, Great Britain is conquering an alien people and seizing a land which is not hers. Notwithstanding this difference, there are not a few Americans who will agree that in other respects the parallel is a just one. More of us find reason for justifying the war with the Boers in the fact that it is the duty of a nation to protect its sons from oppression by foreign Powers.

STURGIS'S DICTIONARY OF ARCHITECTURE.

A Dictionary of Architecture and Building, Biographical, Historical, and Descriptive. Edited by Russell Sturgis. In 3 vols. Vol. I., A-E. Pp. ix, 471; 34 plates, illustrations. Macmillan Co.

There already exists in our language an important Dictionary of Architecture. It was begun in 1850 by an English society organized for the purpose of its publication, and was completed only about seven years ago. It is a folio of 2,300 pages, usually bound in six or eight volumes, and as issued in parts it costs the subscribers twenty guineas. But few copies of it have found their way to this country. There was also Audsley's less ambitious attempt, but that came to an untimely end, and since then the field for an architectural dictionary has been an open one.

The selection of Mr. Russell Sturgis as the editor of such a work was well advised. His previous experience in lexicographical work, as in the conduct of one of the departments of the Century Dictionary, had prepared him for his task, and enabled him to carry it forward with a speed unusual in such undertakings. That the publication of the present work is not to be drawn out over a period of forty years, as was that of the Architectural Publication Society's Dictionary, or to come to a standstill ere half its course is run as did Audsley's, we may well imagine, since the first volume is at hand, the second in type, and the third in manuscript. As the foremost writer in America upon architecture and allied subjects, Mr. Sturgis commands a respect that has earned him the assistance of men of the broadest training and highest technical skill. This corps of writers includes, among many others equally well known, Messrs. Edwin H. Blashfield, Frederic Crowinshield, and John La Farge, who write upon painting and painted decoration; Caryl Coleman on ecclesiology; F. S. Dellenbaugh on American archæology; William Paul Gerhard on sanitary science; William R. Hutton and Corydon Purdy on structural engineering; A. L. Frothingham and Allan Marquand on the archæology of art; Charles A. Platt on gardens, and R. Phené Spiers on Oriental architecture. In all there are some sixty contributors.

The work is not, on the one hand, a mere glossary, a series of words arranged alphabetically, each furnished with the briefest possible definition; nor is it, on the other hand, an encyclopædia in which lengthy articles appear under a few headings. It is rather a combination of the two—an encyclopædic dictionary, in which every word related to the principal subject is given and defined, while the more important are treated in articles of several hundred or several thousand words. Thus, "Dwang" is defined by five words, while "Egypt" is given five thousand. The scope of the work is not badly indicated by its sub-title as "Biographical, Historical, and Descriptive." Definition is certainly the first function of a dictionary; description is but an enlargement of that idea. Half, or more than half, of the terms receive mere definition, yet a sufficient treatment. Among these one notes a surprisingly large proportion of words in foreign languages—a fact that brings home to us the heavy indebtedness of the architecture of any country to that of other countries. Many of these, such as *allège*, *andron*, *dégagement*, *fondamenta*, have no exact English equivalent; therefore, careful definition is most useful.

Among the longer descriptive articles in the first volume one notes particularly the following: *Acoustics*, in which Prof. W. C. Sabine of Harvard, whose investigations have placed the whole subject of architectural acoustics in a new light, gives a résumé of the present knowledge of the subject as free from technicalities as the nature of the thing permits; *Architect*, in which the rôle that he has played in the erection of buildings in many lands and in many ages is discussed, and in which his education, duties, emoluments, etc., in America, France, England, and Italy are considered; *Church*, in which the sundry kinds of churches and the several parts of each, are defined, and to which Mr. Barr Ferree has added a list of the more important churches of Western Europe, with brief notes on each; *Design*, in which Mr. W. R. Lethaby offers an essay on the theory of architectural design not only from the usual points of view, such as proportion, symmetry, materials, etc., but from those of nature, adaptability, and tradition.

But enough as to the merely descriptive part of the book. Let us turn to the historical, which we find contained chiefly in a series of articles upon the architecture of various countries. Among these the vigorous and sympathetic handling of the history of architecture in England, by Mr. R. Clipston Sturgis, is one of the ablest, as it is one of the most readable. Professor Hamlin has written on both Byzantine and Egyptian architecture, and Mr. R. A. Cram has done his best to throw some light on the obscure history of architecture in China. It is articles such as these which especially give the work its encyclopædic character and make it more than a Dictionary.

Biographies of architects and of those

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whose work was closely related to architecture, play a large part in the scheme of the work. Almost the whole of this has been in the hands of Mr. E. R. Smith of the Avery Architectural Library, who has contributed a greater volume of matter to the Dictionary than has any one else, who has, in fact, contributed one-third of its entire contents. His writing is marked by its thoroughness and its scholarly qualities. During the last twenty-five years the question of the authorship of important buildings, especially in Italy, has been greatly modified by the mass of original documentary evidence which has been made available. Mr. Smith has based his conclusions, wherever it was possible, on original sources. In view of the overturning of so many old ascriptions, it is very gratifying to have at last a book of reference from which one may feel reasonably sure of obtaining an account of the life of an architect and a list of his works representing the latest conclusions of scholarship. To each of these biographies has been appended a list of the works to which further reference may most profitably be made, and as this system has been pursued more or less consistently throughout the Dictionary, the notes to the articles form in themselves an *index librorum* of great utility.

It must be confessed that there are some things about this Dictionary that one would wish otherwise. In the first place, the reader gets no assistance as to either the pronunciation or derivation of the terms defined, nor, except in rare cases, are their equivalents in other languages given. Considering the fact that many of the words about which one seeks information are in foreign languages, such assistance would have been of great value. To this, however, it may fairly be answered that most men have at hand other dictionaries from which they can secure such information. In the second place, a somewhat obvious defect is lack of proportion. The longer articles stand in a place by themselves. The words which give rise to them have received a far more ample treatment than other words of apparently equal importance, and even among articles of equal length great differences of importance of subject exist. For instance, the word "Bar-room" has eleven lines, while "Coliseum" gets but twelve, and not even a reference to the literature of the subject, nor a cross-reference to "Amphitheatre." There is not a systematic and well-sustained attempt to describe important buildings by means of the names of the places in which they occur. Such a task would have been an enormous one, and wisdom was shown in not undertaking it, yet here and there we come across some slight attempt in that direction. Under the word "Abbey" we find an excellent definition of the word, near which occur the sub-headings, Abbaye-aux-Dames, Abbaye-aux-Hommes, Bath Abbey, Battle Abbey, Westminster Abbey, Abbey of St. George (Boscherville), Abbeys of Scotland, Abbeys of Yorkshire. It is a little puzzling to understand on what principle Bath and Battle Abbeys have been included where there is no mention of Glastonbury, Tewkesbury, Romsey, Tintern, or St. Albans, or why the Abbaye de St. Georges de Boscherville should be described where there is no mention of Cîteaux, of Cluny, or of Mont Saint-Michel, or, indeed, why all the abbeys of Germany and Italy should have been ignored.

Without going far, one comes upon some curious examples of misinformation; as, for instance, where this same Battle Abbey is described as a ruined church. Now the excellent definition of Abbey to which we have referred, makes clear that an abbey is a monastic establishment, that its buildings are many, and that the use of the word to designate the church alone is erroneous. Particularly is this true of Battle, where the remains of the Abbey Church are most scanty—so scanty, in fact, that they consist of a few heaps of crumbling masonry, cropping up from a grassy lawn, and of some up-ended stones said to mark the position of the high altar, the spot where Harold is reputed to have fallen. The Dormitory is an interesting ruin, while other monastic buildings are so well preserved that, with suitable additions, they form so stately a country-seat that any one who has ever seen them, surrounded as they are by terraced gardens and overhung by cedars of Lebanon, associates the idea of Battle Abbey not with a ruined church, but with a fine old English mansion.

In a dictionary, of all books, the illustrations should be exactly to the point, and in a Dictionary of Architecture every point capable of illustration by a drawing should have one. Excepting the half-tone plates, which are both well made and well chosen, the illustrations in our present book are, in many ways, not satisfactory. They are engraved from line drawings, and almost without exception they present an antiquated appearance. One suspects that cuts have been got together, rather than made for the occasion, and used wherever they would best fit the case or often without exactly fitting it. It would seem, too, that generally, where no suitable cut was forthcoming, none was made. As an example of this, under the heading "Boss," we find four excellent illustrations drawn from French and English Gothic, but in a neighboring article, where eight kinds of brace are described, not one of the eight has the help of even a diagram. The somewhat ready-made character of the illustrations could scarcely be more clearly shown than in the article "Alhambra," which has the singular treatment of eight lines of text with no plan of the citadel or its surroundings, but with a small and rather coarsely drawn view of the group, and, most astonishing of all, with a full-page illustration of the wooden framing on which the plaster work of the Court of Lions is carried!

But it is not hard to pick flaws in the best of technical dictionaries, and this one, in spite of its defects, which are of omission rather than commission, will prove an eminently useful and, in the main, reliable work. ✕

The Rulers of the South. Sicily, Calabria, Malta. By Francis Marion Crawford. With a hundred original drawings by Henry Brokman. In two volumes. The Macmillan Co. 1900.

Mr. Crawford's long residence in Italy and his well-known attachment to the country, make it seem natural that he should continue to publish novels drawn from Italian subjects, and not unnatural that he should write portions of Italian history. His 'Ave Roma Immortalis' of two years ago was a departure from fiction, though charged with imaginative sympathy, and it should be mentioned as a kind of prelude to 'Rulers of the South.' Both works are conceived in the same spirit, written in the same style, and illustrated in the same general manner. Mr. Crawford is copious, but we should hardly call him rhetorical. When his heart is touched by the memory of past scenes or departed heroes, he infuses a lyrical strain into his prose. The design is clearly to quicken a living interest in the distant episodes which are described, and all the author's literary skill is used to heighten the effect. Almost always the result is reached. If an occasional sentence glows too warmly, we find the explanation in honest enthusiasm for the art and life which have given those southern lands their classic character.

The title needs to be supplemented by two or three statements about the contents. For instance, the bulk of the book deals with Sicily and that part of the mainland which was contained in Magna Græcia. Malta is only a pendant, and its history is kept quite in the background. While Calabria is singled out in the title from the other districts of southern Italy, the term does not furnish an exact indication of what one may look for in the text, as Apulia stands forth prominently in the narrative of the Norman conquest. Finally, the title-page gives no hint of the chronological limits which are observed. Mr. Crawford really stops at 1282 with the Sicilian Vespers, though one short chapter brings on the story to the time of Charles V., and an essay on the Mafia is added in conclusion. We do not inveigh against the title for failing to furnish a synopsis of the contents, but the facts which we have given will show the scope of the two volumes a little more fully.

Mr. Crawford divides his space pretty evenly between the classical and the mediæval periods, devoting a volume to the first and nearly a volume to the second. Greeks, Romans, and Normans are the prominent races; Goths, Byzantines, and Saracens are remembered, but kept in the second rank. Mr. Crawford enjoys the great advantage of personal acquaintance with Italian and Sicilian topography. A sketch like his must be selective at every point. If one knows the ground well, he gains a sense of perspective and a feeling for the relative consequence of different places which seldom comes from reading alone. Especially is this the case in Sicily, where different civilizations are so stratified, and where, without a sure instinct, the historian will distort his proportions. Mr. Crawford says of this island at an early stage (vol. i., p. 25):

"Its history is confused by an enormous number of small details, and by such endless accounts of insignificant personages and of minor actions that the main stream of interest is divided into a thousand channels where no single rivulet has much strength or beauty left; and sometimes all the channels are quite dry. For Sicily has been the favorite ground of the specialist for a long time, and in the specialist's minute work the smallest detail may possess for him the very highest importance."

And he has avoided the danger which thus, at the outset, he perceives.

We must notice the way in which Mr. Crawford employs historical materials, for this is an important matter in the case of the picturesque writer. He has, apparently, done some work at first hand, and he follows good guides: Holm for the classical period, Ritter for Greek philosophy, Amari

✕ As I expected. Mr. R.S. scorns petty accuracy. Perhaps his artistic temperament is annoyed with weighing details. As a whole this would

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for the Mohammedans in Sicily, Delarc for the Normans in Italy, Capecelatro for Neapolitan affairs, etc. His bibliography of twenty-eight titles is a good one, though we observe with a certain amount of amusement the absence of a reference to Freeman's books on Sicily, both to "big Sicily" and "little Sicily," as their author called them in his journal. This is one of the most severe criticisms which the late Oxford professor has received, for in later life Sicily was his great hobby. Mr. Crawford's aim is "to give a simple and true account of the successive dominations by which Sicily and the south of Italy have sometimes prospered and sometimes suffered." The structure is simple, though the style is now and then poetical, and it is plain that an attempt has been made to secure accuracy. At several points a pedant might quarrel with Mr. Crawford's statements, but we have found none that are very misleading. We give one or two instances of what we mean. Vol. i., p. 14: "Alaric meditated the passage [from Italy to Sicily], but withdrew." Vol. i., p. 370: "Had he [Alaric] lived, he would have conquered Sicily and his rule might have been good." These sentences need reconciliation. Vol. ii., pp. 360-361: Mr. Crawford contrasts the south of Italy with Venice, Lombardy, Tuscany, and Rome, and says: "The south was better worth winning and holding . . . from Henry the Sixth to Gonzalvo de Cordova." This is not uniformly true, because money was what the sovereigns of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance always sought, and when Charles VIII. entered Italy the revenue of Milan was double that of Naples, while the revenue of Venice was greater in the ratio of eight to three. The work is not free from minor slips, but it would be unfair to lay much emphasis upon them.

We could not in a single paragraph supply any satisfactory criticism of what Mr. Crawford writes about Greeks, Romans, and Normans, or even about Goths, Byzantines, and Saracens. There is nothing better in the book than the account of Greek life in Italy and Sicily, with its careful discrimination of values, its animated description of the Athenian catastrophe at Syracuse, and of Timoleon's exploits in behalf of the same town, its sympathetic view of Greek ideals. But we leave aside the classical and mediæval periods for a word about the smaller subject of the Mafia.

The Mafia might, with a show of reason, be called the curse of modern Sicily, but it is something more. It is the mirror in which the strongest traits of Sicilian character are reflected, some vicious and some honorable. A few months ago Signor Antonio Cutrera, Chief of Police at Palermo, summed up a long experience of fighting it in a book called 'La Mafia e i Mafiusi.' Mr. Crawford, using this as a storehouse of illustrations, depicts the system with the utmost clearness. The Mafia differs wholly from the Camorra of Naples, the aim of which is to make profit by pilfering, plundering, or any other means. It also differs from brigandage. The ordinary Sicilian, whose ancestors have for centuries suffered unjust robbery and death under the cloak of law, hates the police and the courts. Not only does a good Sicilian conceal his enemy's name from the police when he has himself been injured. "The obligation to conceal the name of the assassin or other offender extends to all those who chance to be witnesses of the crime, and it is even considered to be their duty to hide the criminal from the police if he is pursued. The code requires an innocent man to go to penal servitude for another rather than betray the culprit, and Signor Cutrera, who should know, if any one does, states that cases are not rare in which Sicilians, though innocent, have undergone long terms of imprisonment, and have even died in prison, rather than give information to the police." One proof of the ascendency which the Mafia has gained may be found in the method employed to protect the lemon and orange groves of the Conca d'Oro around Palermo. The guardians are all Mafiusi, and the owner who would dispense with their services loses his crop and probably his life. Their "despotism over the orange-growing regions is absolute." They levy tribute on land-owners when their funds run low, but do not molest strangers. "It is quite wrong," says Mr. Crawford, "to suppose that foreigners visiting Sicily and having no interests in the island are exposed to any danger from the Mafia or from any organized band of brigands; and with ordinary precautions, if the traveller is willing to avoid a few dangerous localities, he will not be more exposed to the attack of common thieves than in many other countries."

Mr. Crawford's 'Rulers of the South' is a bright, attractive sketch, and it should recommend historical studies to some who believe it quite right for the dead past to bury its dead. We must also praise the excellence of Mr. Brokman's drawings.

The Transit of Civilization from England to America in the Seventeenth Century. By Edward Eggleston. D. Appleton & Co. 1901. Pp. ix, 344.

A little more than four years ago, Dr. Eggleston's 'Beginners of a Nation' was favorably reviewed in these columns. He has now followed that initial study of the life and character of the American people with a second volume of equal value. Like its predecessor, it is terse and vivid in style and exceedingly compact in treatment. Three hundred and thirteen pages of text and notes suffice for the story. Dr. Eggleston's present volume is in no sense a narrative of colonial beginnings. It does not attempt to repeat the familiar tale. It presumes an acquaintance with the main facts of early colonial history. It is, rather, a series of six brief monographs designed to put vividly before the reader the point of view under which the early settlers of the United States conceived the world in which they lived, and estimated conduct and life. The first of these essays treats of the conceptions of Nature entertained by the colonists and of their superstitions. The astronomical, meteorological, and biological notions of the founders are touched with a skilful and illuminating pen. Their beliefs as to angelic or demoniac intervention in the affairs of life are graphically illustrated. Then follows a "Digression concerning Medical Notions at the Period of Settlement," that gives a striking impression of the rudimentary and erroneous condition of the healing art. This done, Dr. Eggleston discourses entertainingly on "Mother English, Folk-lore, and Literature," as affected by colonial surroundings; and, in a very suggestive chapter on "Weights and Measures of Conduct," illustrates the different judgments of that age as contrasted with those entertained in ours in regard to morals and religion. Education next claims his attention, and the book closes with a chapter on land and labor.

The result is a volume of decided interest and value. It is a real contribution to the literature of the well-worked field of American beginnings—a field in which Dr. Eggleston has been fortunate enough to discover an overlooked corner. The book, brief as it is, is a mine of recondite information, and bears witness on every page to wide and careful reading of sources outside those ordinarily drawn upon by writers on our colonial history. Nor are the general fairness and candor of the volume less conspicuous than its learning. Dr. Eggleston is certainly oftentimes unsympathetic with the weaknesses of a bygone age, but he is a conscientious guide. Instances of his sanity of judgment might be cited in abundance, but one quotation must suffice. Speaking of New England, he observes:

"Puritanism made one great contribution to human culture. More emphatically than any other movement of modern times, it taught the supremacy of conscience. . . . Conscience could not long remain at high tide; the ebb was inevitable. The last half of the seventeenth century saw a swift declension from primitive Puritan ideals. But through such temporary and aberrant exercises the moral nature of the race is developed; by such efforts to attain a visionary and impossible excellence is the sense of right and wrong made strenuous enough to refuse the bribes of sensuality and of worldly ambition. The successors of those who exercised their consciences on frivolous judgments about apparel, psalm-singing, and imaginary idolatries in the names of islands and days, may put their hereditary strenuousness or their traditional preference for ethical considerations into the promotion of substantial social betterments. The ferment may not be pleasant, but the brew is good at the last."

The volume has been provided, by Mr. Charles Alexander Nelson, with an index of much more than usual copiousness of reference.

L'Âme Américaine. Par Edmond de Nevers. 2 vols. Paris: Jouve et Boyer. 1900.

The ambitious character of the above title is somewhat modified in the preface to these volumes, for M. Edmond de Nevers there announces to his French-Canadian compatriots that his purpose is not so much an addition to the scientific psychology of peoples as an attempt to discover what conditions of life in the United States might in the future make this country an attractive settling-ground for his fellow-countrymen. From the safe refuge of an American domicile, he can thus express with more openness a number of feelings or tendencies which many of his friends across the border, in their quality of British subjects, might find it inopportune to publish in a British colony. His exposition and argument proceed on the assumption that it is desirable for the French-speaking element to preserve a quasi-racial, if not ethnical, distinctness while continuing to inhabit countries in which political rights are open to all. This aspect of the work is consequently that of racial particularism. This spirit rises to some intensity when M. de Nevers approaches the subject of Irish immigration and, as he puts it, the overwhelming of other factors in national development by the Celt. With the characteristic misgivings of his own racial com-

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munity, the author views askance the growth of this power in the land, of which he professes to see signs in all directions; while he declares, with no less complacency (vol. ii., p. 368), that, during a three years' residence in Rhode Island, he found but four or five occasions for speaking English—a fact which may well give pause to native Americans still confident in the absorbing power of our national life. It is further admitted by M. de Nevers that the tenacity which French-Canadians continue to show in the preservation of their mother-tongue among themselves is mainly owing to the efforts of their clergy; usually, when a French-Canadian abjures, he promptly Anglicizes his name, educates his children in the common schools, and his representative in the third generation loosens the last tie by forgetting, or ignoring, both origin and language. To account for the alacrity shown in these transformations, much stress is laid on "assimilation by contempt," the implication being that those who cling to ancestral conditions possess more moral courage than the denationalized renegade. As for M. de Nevers's contention that settlers of common race and speech can, by clinging together, improve their chances of contributing to the intellectual production of the country more worthily than in the past, we fail to perceive its cogency. If, as he says, the majority of Americans "whose reputation has crossed the ocean on the waft of other titles than those of the millionaire or the soldier," are of Anglo-Saxon origin, we would add that much the best part of their inspiration came from their whole-hearted adherence to principles and sentiments essentially American; to their unswerving faith in a truly national unity.

The historical portion of this work, which occupies the first volume, serves as a setting for the discussions contained in the second. Though eminently readable and compiled from trustworthy authorities, official or unofficial, it discloses nothing new in the history of the commonwealth. Other divisions of the book take up, in not unfavorable review, millionairism, the spirit of social equality, the economic problem of the unequal distribution of wealth, etc.; and the treatment concludes with a hopeful outlook on the future. M. de Nevers appears to anticipate with some satisfaction a possible linguistic division of this country into zones determined by the respective predominance of English, French, and German, in already clearly defined regions. Certainly, if a fair proportion of his French fellow-citizens could write their mother-tongue with the same correctness and ease as their present mentor, the cause he pleads would stand a fairer chance of winning external sympathy; possibly, too, some measure of success.

Wisconsin's Deutsch-Amerikaner bis zum Schluss des Neunzehnten Jahrhunderts. Von Wilhelm Hense Jensen. Volume I. Milwaukee: Deutsche Gesellschaft. 1900. 8vo, pp. x, 400.

One does not look for finished literary style in a work like the one under review. Nor does experience warrant the expectation of historical perspective and proportion, or of an impersonal point of view, in a memorial produced under the auspices of a society organized for aid and advice to immigrants of the nationality involved; least of all, a sober apology in lieu of enthusiastic glorification. As a matter of fact, however, Herr Jensen's style is charming; brisk and concise to a degree rarely found in German. His descriptive powers are excellent. The saving quality of humor, moreover, is pervasive. Above all, his writing possesses that sympathetic quality which the German so aptly terms "anheimelnd." Herr Jensen writes with a zest infectious to the reader, and he is seldom wanting in tact.

Of this 'History of Wisconsin's German-Americans' we can say that it is almost void of personal puffery and of gingerly regard for personal prejudice—in the case of "personages of prominence" wholly; and Herr Jensen's few lapses are not only confined to the obscure, but are so obviously tendered as a good-natured *quid pro quo* for "favors extended" to the author in his often vain search after sources and data, that indulgence is readily granted. That his work has a *Tendenz*, however, is not disputed. He postulates that the spirit of Teutonism has left its impress upon the civilization of Wisconsin, and he proceeds so to marshal his facts as to prove his thesis, but in no spirit of vain race glorification. Thus, he does not hesitate to make very clear the fact that *au fond* the German's persistent championship of "persönliche Freiheit" has been practically no more than a selfish insistence upon the untrammelled consumption of beer. For a long time political questions of the profoundest ethical and intensest practical import were almost wholly ignored, but the "Trinkfrage" has never yet been lost sight of. It was but tardily and incidentally that the emancipation question agitated our German-American fellow-citizens; and even then but partially and temporarily. For while it is true that Wisconsin Germans quite generally were "War" Democrats, copperheads were numerous enough among them, and these of the most virulent type; while abolitionists were few and far between. Again, German Catholics, having, under stress of the Know-nothing agitation, become Democrats, the Lutherans flocked into the Republican ranks for no better reason than that the "Romanists" were in the other camp; while the "freethinking" element, the so-called "Forty-eighters," vacillated and oscillated between the two parties, according to the alternating intensity of their devotion to universal liberty in the abstract and to the demands of "personal liberty" in the concrete.

This lack of cohesive fealty to principle and of organized loyalty to party, the German's besetting sin at home no less than abroad; his almost childish resentment of "Yankee" criticism," and his quite womanish dread of the "nativist" bugaboo—in a word, his clannishness and his touchiness—are fearlessly exposed by Herr Jensen. Nor is there any undue attempt to exploit the German in his pet rôle of "Culturträger"; as an evangelist of the arts and sciences; as the missionary of culture among a race of matter-of-fact, money-worshipping barbarians.

"In political and public leadership German influence has been practically impotent," is Herr Jensen's final judgment. Due deference having been once for all paid by practical politicians to his almost fanatical insistence upon "personal liberty" in the matter of consuming beer at pleasure as to time, place, degree, and manner, and perfunctory representation having been accorded on both tickets (by common consent the treasurership for State, county, city, and town), Germans were otherwise habitually treated as mere "voting cattle"—to quote Herr Jensen's own words—and quite deservedly. Neither are there recorded any original achievements to boast of in the domain of art and science; nor of leadership in the professions.

In the present volume Herr Jensen thus carries the history of German-Americanism to about the year 1875, which practically concludes the successive periods of pioneer settlement and of formative development under the domination of men of foreign rather than of immigrant nativity—a period of something less than twoscore years, during which the immigrant himself was the ethical as well as ethnic factor; the second generation not really coming to the fore until the third had already begun to assert itself. In a word, since 1875 the Americanization of Germans in Wisconsin has been a patent fact, while it was prior to 1875 that the Teutonization of the "Yankee" took place. In what did this Teutonization consist? Little by little the inherited individualism and traditional separatism—characteristics best defined by the German's own terms of reproach: "Particularismus" and "Kleinstaatlerei"—gave way to a realization of immigrant consanguinity; so that long before Bismarck's policy of blood and iron had begun the fatherland's unification, its emigrant sons in Wisconsin, including Austrians and Switzers, had acquired a practical sense of national kinship. And, this once achieved, Germans as Germans could not fail powerfully to impress their habits and customs, their ways of life and manner of living, upon their environment. In scores of ways, no less subtly than manifestly, have "Gemüthlichkeit" and "Gemächlichkeit" affected the social customs of "native" Americans. The substitution of beer for whiskey; of leisurely conviviality for vertical "treating"; of the "Continental" Sunday for the insular "Sabbath"; of economical congregate for ostentatious individual sociability; of a sounder pedagogy and the professional teacher; of better music and real musicians; of professionalism for empiricism; of practical conservatism in commerce and finance; of patience and persistence on the farm and in the shop, in place of restless change and speculative hazard; of economy instead of prodigality—all this, in its best essence, the "Yankee" certainly owes to the "Dutchman." Along with this has come the realization, still more or less hazy, that our development as a nation politically also involves our evolution into a people racially, by gradual amalgamation rather than by statutory naturalization.

Apes and Monkeys, Their Life and Language. By R. L. Garner. With an Introduction by Edward Everett Hale. Boston: Ginn & Co. 12mo, pp. xii, 297, illustrated.

There appears to be no mention of the fact that this volume is in great part a reprint from 'The Speech of Monkeys,' 1892, by the same author, copyrighted by Charles L. Webster & Co. Evidence of this, in the less modified portions, is to be seen in chapters v., vi., and vii. of the present volume, copyrighted by Ginn & Co., which were chapters

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iv., v., and viii. of the earlier book. The new material is principally gossip about captive partly trained monkeys and apes, with matter collected from the natives and traders in Africa, and some anatomical and other data, comparatively little of which is new to science. The outcome of the hundred and twelve days spent in an iron cage in the jungle was very small. From this distance it would appear that the author gained nothing that he might not have secured from a hammock under the trees. He might have obtained a great deal more if he had turned himself loose after the apes, like Du Chaillu, instead of wasting his time in waiting for them to call upon him. Some apes accidentally ventured near the cage, it is true, but they held their tongues and vanished at once. We have before us much talk around the subject, a considerable about what the author is yet going to do, and a notable display of the great I. The title of this book gives more latitude than that of its predecessor, but one can hardly see that the iron cage and the many years of Mr. Garner's time have greatly advanced our knowledge of the anthropoids.

Of the speech, he claims to have secured one hundred words, from different species, up to the present time; they are not recorded here, and whether they are available for anybody else is a question. Of the hundred, he says he has interpreted about thirty; of the remainder, he has not been able to determine the exact meanings, though he has an opinion concerning some of them if he has not yet reached a final conclusion about them—that is, he almost knows them. What he has learned, from captives, of course, has been tried on others, and the success is indicated by the remarks in the different cases: He refused to come any nearer and did not answer; I spoke to him, but he made no reply; he neither stopped nor answered; I called three or four times, but it neither stopped nor answered; I repeated the sound several times, but elicited no answer; he looked at me and again resumed his attitude of repose; he answered the call by looking around the corner of the house. The character of the words may be illustrated by one of the most satisfactory words learned, the *wh-oo-w* of the Capuchin; it was first translated milk, sometimes drink, then food, act of eating, hunger, etc., etc., and slight variations in the sound, he says, may indicate different kinds of food. The monkey talk is thus very like that of the horse, the whinny of which means thirst, hunger, hay, oats, corn, something to eat, or liquids, or solids, and may mean another horse, the owner, the hired man, or anything else desired; the intensity of the desire, possibly the kind, being indicated by the emphasis, accent, or other peculiarity of the whinny. Similarly, the startled snort of the pony means dog, wolf, Indian, bear, sheep, or whatever else may scare him; the translation being quite as broad as for the sounds of the monkey.

Among present conclusions, we note that it is impossible to represent sounds of monkey speech by any literal formula; that the speech of monkeys is not of a high order, but appears to have been developed from an inferior type; that their speech is usually limited to a single word or sound, and it is answered in the same manner; that all the sounds made by monkeys refer to their natural physical wants, and that the author did not foresee the difficulties. One of the most certain of his discoveries in 1892 was the negative shake of the monkey's head, in which sign the author then believed he had "found the psycho-physical basis of expression." In 1900 the climax is said to have been reached in training an ape to make a sound somewhat resembling the French word *feu*. A minor discovery is that miasma is necessary in order that gorillas may be kept in good health; another is that tobacco smoke is fatal to them; and a third is a slimy python. "Platarrhini" looks more like Catarrhini, but it should be spelled Platyrrhini, Geoff., 1812; because of the prior use of Platyrrhinus, Clairv., 1798, for insects, it should not be used for mammals. The introduction will do more in selling the book than in attesting its science; its author says Mr. Garner "has selected animals, which are certainly animals and not men."

Historical Primer of French Phonetics and Inflection. By Margaret S. Brittain. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde.

This primer was originally intended to serve as an introduction to Brachet's 'Grammaire historique de la langue française,' as translated and amplified by Paget Toynbee of Oxford. The latter is known to students of French principally through his 'Specimens of Old French'; his suggestion it was that led to the preparation of the Primer. Its usefulness, however, will depend largely not upon its relation to a grammar which is now more or less antiquated even in its revised form, as the translator and reviser practically admits in his introductory note to the Primer, but on its inherent merit. The author has consulted particularly the grammars of Meyer-Lübke, Schwan, Suchier, and Darmesteter; one would be hard put to it to find four better for her purpose. She has, indeed, as is intimated in the introductory note, profited by the recent advances in the science of phonetics, but along historical lines, not in the physiology and acoustics of the subject; these are quite overlooked, the latter not improperly in its present primitive state. However, a short statement of the physiological formation of the sounds, and the consistent employment of an adequate phonetic alphabet, whereby the letter might not all too frequently conceal the sound, would enhance decidedly the scientific value of the book.

A brief sketch of the development of the Romance languages in general, and of the dialect of the Île de France in particular, is followed by a history of the Latin sounds in their passage through Folk-Latin and Gallo-Roman into French. In spite of certain imperfections, especially on the more general and theoretical side, the pith of the matter is here. The Folk-Latin phonology is, in accordance with the prevailing practice, considered apart from the later Romance growth, but the latter is not subdivided into various periods, as is frequently the case; this change of method has its advantages in so condensed a treatise. Such dates as are determinable or reasonably conjecturable are for the most part given faithfully. The twenty-odd pages that are devoted to inflection contain necessarily but the barest outlines, yet here as elsewhere it is remarkable how much has been got into so limited a space. The concluding index of French words occurring in the text is a helpful addition.

This opuscule, with its scant hundred pages, is simple, surprisingly complete, and on the whole accurate and modern in essential details. Its uniqueness and compactness constitute its chief value, for at present there is in English no up-to-date primer of French phonology and inflection. "The want of some such elementary book has long been felt by English students," says Paget Toynbee. Few grammars published in America pay any attention to the linguistic antecedents of French: Edgren's, which has done yeoman service, contains but mere hints; Bevier's is somewhat better. In French, Clédat, Darmesteter, and Nyrop occur to one, but, superior as these are in many ways, none is nearly so compact as the Primer. Students of Romania will welcome this little book; it may well serve as a vademecum for the beginner in French historical grammar.

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Bonafons. Raymond. L'Arioste: Extraits avec une Introduction et des Notes Explicatives. Paris: Garnier Frères.
Boone, H. B., and Brown, K. Eastover Court House. Harpers.
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Bougaud, Emile. The Divinity of Christ; An Argument. Wm. H. Young & Co. $1.
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Jose, A. W. Australasia: the Commonwealth and New Zealand. (Temple Primers.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 40 cents.
King, Charles. In Spite of Foes, or Ten Years' Trial. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Le Feuvre, Amy. Olive Tracy. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
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Link, S. A. Pioneers of Southern Literature. Vol. II. Nashville (Tenn.): Methodist Pub. House. 75 cents.
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Lummis, C. F. The Land of Sunshine. Volume 13. Los Angeles: Land of Sunshine Publishing Co.
Lynch, Hannah. French Life in Town and Country. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Macmechan, A. M. A Calendar of Two Letter-books and One Commission-Book in the Possession of the Government of Nova Scotia, 1713-1741. (Nova Scotia Archives, II.) Halifax: By Legislative Authority.
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